

# The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

*Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine*

EDITED IN CO-OPERATION WITH COMMITTEES OF  
THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION

AND

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

ALBERT E. MCKINLEY, MANAGING EDITOR

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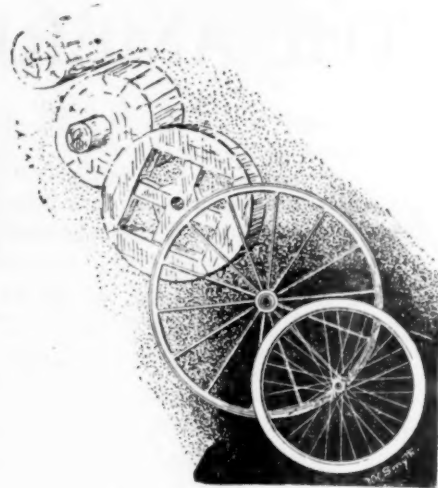
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# The Historical Outlook

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## Fifth Annual Meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies

The fifth annual meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies was held in Cincinnati, Ohio, on February 21 and 22, 1925, during the annual convention of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association.

On the 21st, the exercises were held at the University of Cincinnati in McMicken Hall, with President J. T. McCormack presiding. After an address of welcome by President Frederick C. Hicks, of the University, in which he laid considerable emphasis on the importance of the social studies in modern education, the morning was devoted to discussions of grade 12 courses in social studies. Mr. A. E. Erickson, of the Watertown, S. D., High School, described the separate presentation of the several social sciences in the grade under consideration. Miss Kathryn E. C. Carrigan described the two unified courses in the Atlantic City High Schools; and Miss Marguerite Morey gave an account of her efforts to correlate the several social studies in grade 12 in the Fort Thomas, Kentucky, High School.

Miss Carrigan defended the Problems of Democracy plan of organization, as offered by the New Jersey State Committee on Social Studies and set forth in the May, 1924, number of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* by Mr. R. R. Ammarell; and she drew most of the attention of those who took part in the discussion. Among these were Mr. E. P. Smith, Supervisor of Social Studies in New York State; Mr. R. O. Hughes, Peabody High School, Pittsburgh; Professor R. M. Tryon, University of Chicago. The papers will probably appear in a later number of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*.

At luncheon the members were addressed by State Superintendent Will C. Wood, of California. Mr. Wood is making a strong stand for more social studies in the California schools, and made a forceful plea for adequate instruction for all pupils in history, economics, sociology, and government. He expressed himself as favoring for the last three years of the school course a year in world history, a year in American history, and a year in "Human Institutions," which title he would substitute for "Problems of Democracy."

The afternoon session discussed the preparation of high school teachers of the social studies under the leadership of Professor P. W. Hutson, of the University of Pittsburgh. Mr. Hutson has made a de-

tailed statistical analysis of the professional training of 270 teachers of social studies in the Minnesota high schools. His results bear out the general statements to be found in Bulletin 3, 1922, of the Bureau of Education, dealing with this subject. They make it perfectly clear that most institutions which train teachers in this field have not yet grasped the imperative importance of requiring the prospective teacher to become acquainted, not merely with one or two of the social studies, but with all of them, if his view of his task is to be anything like adequate.

In the business meeting of the National Council, which followed the discussion of Mr. Hutson's paper, the following statement of standards was unanimously adopted, and the Secretary was directed to send it to teacher training institutions, with a request for comment by them:

### STANDARDS FOR THE TEACHING OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN HIGH SCHOOLS

1. The social studies, including history, economics, sociology and government, if offered, shall be organized in one department, unless the school is so large that separate departments are required for one or more of these studies.
2. The minimum preparation in subject matter of any teacher of history, economics, sociology or government shall be 30 per cent. of the total requirements for the Bachelor's degree in the four subjects of history, economics, sociology and government; of which at least 15 per cent. of the total requirements shall be in the selected major study, and the other 15 per cent. in the other three, with a minimum of 5 per cent. in history.

Note: Translated into credit hours, this standard means that if 120 hours are required for the Bachelor's degree, a minimum of 36 credit hours in the social studies shall be required; of these, 18 hours must be in the selected major, and 18 hours in the other three social studies, with a minimum of 6 credit hours in history.

3. The minimum preparation in education of any teacher of history, economics, sociology or government shall be 10 per cent. of the total requirements for the Bachelor's degree in educational subjects; and these subjects shall include general and special high school method, and practice teaching.

Note: Translated into credit hours, this standard means that if 120 hours are required for the Bachelor's degree, 12 hours of education shall be required.

### RESOLUTION

*Resolved*, That this organization goes on record as opposed to the so-called "blanket" teacher's certificate, which permits its holder to teach any high school subject; and favors the group certificate, which permits its holder to teach only a related group of subjects. It favors the inclusion of history, economics, sociology and government in the social studies certificate given.



Credit for the preparation of this excellent statement belongs in large measure to Miss Frances Morehouse. It is hoped that it will lead to still further formulation of standards looking to the stabilizing of our thought on all aspects of the social studies program.

The Secretary requested that the reading of his report be dispensed with, because of the lateness of the hour and because a full report had appeared in the December, 1924, issue of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*.

The Treasurer reported receipts of \$1482 during the year just closing, and expenditures of \$1170, leaving a balance of \$412, as against a balance of \$100 a year ago. The expenditures reported consisted mainly of stenographer's salary, printing and postage, and expenses incident to meetings, the printing of programs, and the like.

The two amendments to the Constitution offered in the announcement of this meeting were ordered laid on the table for future consideration, partly because of the lateness of the hour, which did not admit of adequate discussion, and partly because of the slight attendance near the end of the business meeting.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year:

President—H. C. Hill, University of Chicago.

Vice-President—Bessie L. Pierce, University of Iowa.

Secretary-Treasurer—Edgar Dawson, Hunter College.

Corresponding Secretary—Mary V. Carney, Central High School, St. Paul, Minn.

The meeting adopted resolutions of thanks to the officers of the University of Cincinnati and the members of the Local Committee. It also directed the Secretary to send to the family of the late Mr. Arleigh C. Griffin, Vice-President of the National Council, a letter expressing the Council's profound sympathy and high appreciation of the loss to education resulting from his untimely death.

#### DIRECTORS' MEETING

The Directors met on the morning of the 22d at the Hotel Havlin. In the absence of the Chairman, President T. J. McCormack presided. A motion was then passed that, unless other action be taken by the Board, each retiring president of the National Council should act as Chairman of the Board for one year.

Messrs. K. F. Geiser, J. T. McCormack, and Albert E. McKinley were elected to serve with the four officers of the National Council as an Executive Committee of the Board.

The Board approved an arrangement by which the dues of members of the Council are reduced from one dollar to a registration fee of twenty-five cents, to be collected through the office of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* in connection with subscriptions to the magazine. Provision was made for membership cards and for other items to be mailed to members of the Council.

The following committees were authorized and are to be appointed by the President:

1. A committee under the chairmanship of the corresponding secretary, with the duty to collect and organize information with regard to surveys and other similar facts bearing on the status and tendencies in the social studies in cities, states, and foreign countries. Among other things, the committee will seek to find out what persons are leading in efforts in various sections to develop teaching in this field.

2. A committee on state legislation and city ordinances dealing with the social studies. Professor Tryon called attention to a recently prepared thesis, giving a large part of this information, and it is expected that the committee will collect such further information as will keep that furnished in the thesis up to date.

3. A committee on formulation of standards. The statement adopted in the business meeting this year constitutes a beginning in this direction, which it is expected that the committee will continue and develop.

4. A committee on membership and affiliation with sectional, state, and local organizations of teachers of history or the other social studies. Some state and local bodies have already officially united with the National Council. It is expected that this committee will promote such affiliation and consider the terms on which affiliation can best be brought about.

5. A committee on policies and plans, which will probably develop into a steering committee for the Board, preparing resolutions for the annual meetings.

6. A finance committee. The arrangement entered into with *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* provides the necessary funds for the routine expenses of the organization and insures its ordinary activities. If, however, the committees provided for are to perform highly useful functions, it will be necessary that they be provided with some financial support.

A number of the associations represented in the Board of Directors provided this year for the traveling expenses of their delegates. It is understood that the delegates will report back to their associations the character and progress of the National Council, and secure from them such arrangements as will make it possible for every member of the Board to attend future annual meetings, or to send an alternate. It was felt by the seventeen persons who attended this meeting that the discussion in a body organized as this one is has in it promise of the wisest and most constructive educational progress.

Arrangements are under way for the meeting of the National Council with the National Education Association in Indianapolis, Indiana, on the afternoons of Thursday and Friday, July 2d and 3d.

Appreciation was expressed of the generous cooperation received from *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* and it was ordered that the Committee on Relations with the magazine be continued.



# Pertinent Fields for Research in Colleges\*

BY PROFESSOR W. W. SWEET, DE PAUW UNIVERSITY

Within the last half generation history teaching in the colleges has undergone considerable change; a change, greater in many respects than that which has taken place in the universities, in the same length of time. The first trained history instructors were to be found in the universities, while it has only been within very recent years that the rank and file of the colleges have had the services of professionally trained history teachers. The old type of college history instructor had no graduate training and generally reached his position, in the denominational colleges particularly, through the medium of the ministry. This type often made up in personality what he lacked in technical preparation, but his influence was little exerted in the direction of research, nor did he, as a rule, inspire his students with a desire for graduate study. The place of this type of college history teacher is now generally taken by a generation of men who have found their way into teaching through the medium of the graduate schools. In character and personality they may not be the equal of the older generation, but from the standpoint of scholastic preparation for their task the present generation certainly surpasses the older.

The scholastic preparation of the average history instructor in the better colleges today compares favorably with the graduate preparation of the university teacher. An examination of the history faculties of the better-known colleges for the past several years reveals the fact that the number holding doctor's degrees from reputable universities is rapidly increasing. From the standpoint of encouraging historical research and graduate study on the part of college students, this fact is significant.

Recently there were sent out questionnaires to the graduate history faculties of the seven universities of the five states of the Old Northwest, with the idea of attempting to discover the relation of the colleges to their graduate schools. The first question read: "What proportion of the graduate students in history in your university are from colleges?" One reply reported as high a proportion as 80 per cent., while none reported fewer than 30 per cent., and the average was probably slightly above 50 per cent. The second question was: "What proportion of your graduate fellowships and scholarships in the past two years have been granted to graduates of colleges?" The highest proportion reported was 90 per cent. and the lowest about 12 per cent. Several answered this question by saying that the appointment to fellowships and scholarships "is a matter of men and not of institutions." There are certain instructors

\*A paper read at the Richmond meeting of the American Historical Association, December 27, 1924.

in small institutions whose recommendations mean much more than recommendations from other instructors in larger institutions. It would seem, indeed, that a student from a class A or B college is as likely to receive a scholarship as a graduate of the best among the universities, if he shows superior ability.

The answers to the third question: "How does the preparation of the graduates of colleges for graduate study compare with the preparation of graduates of universities," seemed to indicate that the graduates of the universities were better prepared, at least, from a technical standpoint, to undertake graduate study. This, however, was not the unanimous opinion. The total result of the questionnaire seemed to indicate that the graduate schools are depending to a large degree upon the colleges for their supply of graduate material, and the tendency seems to be in the direction of an increasing dependence.

The college has some advantages over the large university in pointing students to graduate study and scholarly pursuits. It would seem that in a college of from five to eight hundred students an instructor has a much better chance to come into personal contact with his students than has the instructor in the larger university. And personal contact of instructor with student is one of the largest single factors in producing graduate students. Then, again, few, if any, undergraduates ever come in contact with a full professor in the large universities before the Junior year, and many not until the Senior year. The quiz sections of the large survey history courses are generally conducted by young instructors or by graduate assistants, while in the average college, on the other hand, the full professors have charge of courses from Freshmen to Senior. This contact with the more mature teacher on the part of the undergraduate in the college is certainly an advantage. The average college instructor, of scholarly instinct and training, takes considerable pride in directing his best students into graduate study, and, as already stated, the number of such instructors in the colleges is increasing.

Turning now to the matter of research in the colleges, it may be appropriate to inquire at the start, are there any suitable fields for historical research in the colleges? The college instructor, who is interested in research, labors under numerous handicaps if he attempts it. He has probably been informed by the president of his college that his chief function is to teach, and that his advancement in the college will depend very largely upon how many classes he is willing to teach and how many students elect his courses. He is liable to get little credit for the time he spends mulling over musty documents or in gathering materials for a monograph. And it

is furthermore very doubtful whether he will receive any added prestige, by the publication of his book, when it finally does appear. His burden of teaching is, as a rule, much greater than is that of the university professor. If he can cut his teaching hours per week to twelve he is extremely fortunate, and not infrequently he finds himself compelled to teach from fifteen to eighteen hours. Fifteen hours of teaching a week, together with the papers and the other routine, leave little time and less energy for independent research.

Another condition working against independent research in the average college are the numerous administrative duties, which are almost bound to accumulate after a few years as a member of a college faculty. The average college professor, in the course of time, becomes a member of numerous committees, such as the committee on curriculum, the athletic committee, and a half dozen others, and many a precious afternoon is spent in such matters, which otherwise might have been used along the line of his special interest.

Then the limited library facilities of the average college constitute a third handicap to the historical investigator who happens to be a member of a college faculty. The typical college library does not contain the great collections of printed sources, such as the *Monumenta*, the *Rolls* series, or *Muratori*. If the research interest of the instructor happens to be in Medieval history, or in English history, or in Hispanic American history, or in any one of a dozen other fields, the probability is that the college library where he teaches furnishes nothing in his field. If he is to continue his interest in any of these fields he must improve his summers or take an occasional sabbatical year, which he is seldom able to afford, and, if he can afford it, his college is liable to find it impossible to let him go.

Nor does the college instructor interested in research have the assistance at hand which is to be found in all the larger universities. There are seldom funds available to employ even a half-time stenographer, nor does he have a graduate seminar to stimulate his interest in research and assist him in the gathering of materials. The materials he gathers, from whatever source, must be painstakingly collected by none other than himself. And when, after years of intermittent toil and the judicious use of precious time, snatched from his too numerous classes and his innumerable committees, he at last succeeds in getting his precious monograph into some acceptable shape, it is usually pounded out by his unskilled fingers on his rebuilt typewriter.

Nor does this, by any means, exhaust all the handicaps which might be mentioned. But in spite of them all, there has been much excellent research work done in the colleges, and today there are numbers of overworked college instructors spending every available moment upon important and interesting research. It was while McMaster was an instructor at Princeton—then a college—in the later seventies and early eighties, that he gathered the materials and prepared

the manuscript of his first volume of the *History of the People of the United States*, a research achievement, unique, and astonishing. It was while John Spencer Bassett was a teacher in Trinity College, North Carolina, that he availed himself of the materials at hand and published a whole series of articles and volumes on North Carolina history. Much the same record was made by William Edward Dodd while a teacher of history in Randolph-Macon college. Frederick Austin Ogg did not wait until he became a professor in a great State University to begin his career of productivity, but, rather, while he was an overloaded instructor at Simmons college, and George Burton Adams published his first studies on Feudalism while an instructor in Drury College, Springfield, Missouri.

Research is primarily a university function and not a college function. It is fundamentally the work of the graduate seminar and the graduate instructor. But the teacher of undergraduates, to be at his best, must have his interest in his subject constantly stimulated, and he must be in vital touch with what is going on in his field. The most adequate and satisfactory way to achieve this result is himself to be a worker in the field of productive scholarship. This gives the teacher a "sense of fellowship which comes from the consciousness of being a worker...in the common task of preserving the memory of human experience." (Bourne, *The Teaching of History*, p. 37.)

It is this type of college instructor whose contact with undergraduates inspires them with the desire to be scholars themselves, and from such an influence come the majority of graduate students from the colleges. There are several colleges in the middle west, for example, of no great wealth or fame, and yet from out of these colleges, within the past dozen years, a stream of students has been going to the graduate schools, east and west, in increasing numbers. Back of these streams of students, with faces turned toward scholarly pursuits, are a half-dozen instructors, such as I have tried to describe. That instructor who can speak with authority, even in some limited field, and is engaged in research in that field, acquires thereby added influence over his best students. For this reason, if for no other, research has a place in the college and deserves to be encouraged. It is needed to set the example of scholarship, it is needed to create the atmosphere out of which scholarship comes.

But what field of historical research shall the college instructor cultivate? Shall he continue his interest in the field in which he wrote his doctor's dissertation? This would seem to be the normal and natural course to pursue, other things being equal. If materials are available for continued work in his chosen field, all well and good; by all means, let him continue his work therein. But, if such materials are not available and his continued research is thereby rendered practically impossible, or is greatly interrupted, the best course for this particular instructor to pursue would seem to be to change, or, at least,

to widen, his interest to include such materials as are at hand.

An investigation of the situation in numerous colleges would reveal some interesting examples of just this condition. Instructors complaining of the dearth of materials for historical research in their college libraries: some of them running off, here, there, and everywhere, as soon as their class work is over, at the end of the academic year, ostensibly to work in other libraries. Doing this year after year, while through the years they have failed even to investigate the materials in their own college library, or other materials near at hand. Many a small college library contains materials of interest and value, but utterly neglected by the instructor of history. The following examples well illustrate my point: In a certain college of my knowledge the teacher of history was interested in a phase of European history, and with commendable zeal he devoted his time and energy and what little money he found available for the purchase of expensive materials in that field. While he was so engaged, through the years, there could have been found in that very college library, files of old papers and other valuable materials, lying in an unkempt heap on the floor of a storeroom, the prey of dampness and book worms. In another college library manuscript materials of interest were deposited in an old trunk, and have been there for many years, and it is only recently that any use has been made of these materials.

Surely, it is much better to be engaged in research in county, regional, or state history, or local social and religious history, than to give up and settle back on one's job with a sigh and complain of the impossibility of research in a chosen field.

If you cannot cross the ocean  
And the foreign archives explore;  
You can find materials nearer,  
You can find them at your door.

The chairman of this sectional meeting, William K. Boyd, is an example of what might be done if a man is willing to change his field of interest and avail himself of materials at hand. Mr. Chairman, you have traveled a considerable distance in your historical interest between your *Eccelesiastical Edicts of the Theodosian Code*, published in 1906, and your *History of North Carolina* of 1919, but no one doubts that you have served your day and generation far better than if you had continued, with scant materials, the further investigation of the Theodosian period; and certainly much better than if you had, like many another, given up all research entirely, because of inaccessible sources in the field of your first love.

With little more than the mere mention of two fields of historical research, which might well be cultivated by the average college instructor, I am through.

The first field is that of state or local history. It is true that the State Universities in the Old Northwest, at least, have emphasized and have extensively cultivated within recent years this field, and most

of this work has been done by university instructors. Alvord's, Cole's, and Pease's work at the University of Illinois, and Esarey's, at Indiana University, are examples. But there is nothing in the way, as far as I have been able to learn, of the men in the colleges connecting up with this work, and, no doubt, their assistance would be welcomed by those who are directing these State historical surveys.

States, such as Wisconsin and Illinois, have gathered together great collections of materials, which are open to all bona-fide historical investigators, and there are few college instructors in such states who might not avail themselves of these materials. What has been accomplished by Bassett and Boyd in North Carolina history, by Hulbert while at Marietta College, and what is now being done by Bond at the University of Cincinnati in the early history of Ohio, and by Carter at Miami are excellent examples of college instructors availing themselves of state history sources.

It is astonishing, also, what can be done at little expense in the way of collecting newspaper files, private papers, and other state and local materials, if one sets out to do it. It is likewise astonishing what can be unearthed in all sorts of out-of-the-way places. Some years ago, in searching for some materials on the activities of the Knights of the Golden Circle in Indiana, in the farm houses about, I came upon the log of a slave ship; a ship which sailed from Providence, Rhode Island, to the west coast of Africa in 1795, and landed a cargo of slaves at Savannah the next year. Not only was it a most interesting document, but one of some historical value, and not the least interesting thing about it was the way in which that manuscript found its way from the slave ship to that Hoosier farmhouse.

A second pertinent field for college research is social and religious history. Many of the colleges which have had a denominational origin have been through the years depositories for historical materials relating to the church of its origin. Here is almost a virgin field, and, what Professor Dodd said about it in 1912, is still largely true. Not much work of a strictly scientific character has been so far done in this field, and here the college investigator has the advantage over even the university man. For "tucked away" in the libraries of denominational colleges are to be found files of religious journals, diaries of ministers, journals of assemblies and conferences, and much other materials of this nature.

One of the criticisms frequently made concerning the studies in religious history, which have so far appeared, is that they are denominational studies, rather than studies of a cross-section of all the churches. But before the total influence of the churches in any given period can be obtained, each of the more important churches must be studied individually, and denominational sources made accessible. Here is a service which can be rendered by the colleges and the theological seminaries to historical research, the value of which is, at least, considerable.



# America's Share of German Reparations

## Some Questions of Law and Policy Raised by the Paris Agreement on German Reparation Allotments

BY D. L. STONE, DARTMOUTH COLLEGE

On January 14, 1925, three American representatives—Myron T. Herrick, Ambassador to France; Frank B. Kellogg, Ambassador to Great Britain, and Colonel James A. Logan, Jr., U. S. A.—acting under authority of the President, came to an accord in Paris with representatives of the Allied Powers, on the subject of the share of the United States in the money to be paid by Germany as reparations under the Dawes' Plan. The understanding was evidenced by their signature, on behalf of the United States, of a general agreement as to the distribution of German reparations.

The proceeding raises two important questions of American foreign policy and constitutional law. Did the signature of this agreement by American representatives by implication bind the United States to coercive action against Germany if she should fail to make the annual payments contemplated by the Dawes' Plan? Has the President, under our Constitution, the right to make an agreement of this sort without the approval of the Senate?

The first question is easier to answer than the second, for it is a question of fact. The latter query involves some delicate and rather obscure points of constitutional law.

### ARE WE BOUND TO ENFORCE PAYMENT UNDER THE DAWES' PLAN?

The agreement does not say that America is legally or morally bound to participate in any sanctions against Germany in case of default. But there can be no doubt that the Allied statesmen present at the Conference thought that its logical result would be American participation in whatever steps should become necessary to enforce the Dawes' Plan. M. Theunis, the Belgian representative, said:

"To pay  $2\frac{1}{4}$  per cent. to have America's signature in our syndicates is nothing. America might ask  $2\frac{1}{4}$  or 7% per cent. to participate in this operation and we would gladly pay, and this would have been a bargain price, too....Regardless of moral consideration but as assurance I would have paid even more dearly."

The French finance minister, M. Clementel, said in the French Chamber of Deputies:

"America's participation in European affairs by sharing in the Dawes' annuities is an insurance policy on the payment of reparations. American participation is beyond price. It has cost us nothing. We should have been glad to pay highly for it."

Sig. Stefani, the Italian finance minister, remarked:

"We regard the enlistment of America by the side of the Allies in the Dawes' Plan as a political event of great importance, of much more importance, than the amount of money involved in the terms of settlement with the American delegation. It seemed to me then, and it seems now, perfectly plain that in taking part in the Paris agreement, the United States took up its part of the responsi-

bility for Germany's paying, and it was because of that understanding that we welcomed the arrangement."

In more guarded language, Mr. Winston Churchill, the British Chancellor of the Exchequer, said:

"The formal participation of the United States in the proceeds of the Dawes' scheme had indisputably added an immense moral weight to the authority on which that scheme stands; and once again, after six years marked by many misunderstandings and divergences, we find the Allies and the United States working together within the limits of the Dawes' scheme in the most complete harmony. That is to me, and I am sure to all our colleagues here, a cause of very real and justifiable satisfaction. It should constitute a definite stage in the march away from the confusion which followed the great victory and toward that general consolidation and reconstitution not only of Allied, but of European affairs, which must ever be our goal."

There was general rejoicing in the European press that America had altered her policy and was once more "in Europe." The *Manchester Guardian* stated:

"Politically it is regarded as of the greatest importance indeed. The unity of 'the allied and associated powers' is restored that was broken by the American Senate's refusal to ratify the Versailles Treaty in 1919. As far as the reparations portion of that treaty is concerned, and generally speaking it is the only unfulfilled portion and therefore the only one that matters, the United States now stands alongside the Allies just as much as if she had ratified the treaty."

The (Paris) *Oeuvre* said:

"America has become officially a contracting party in the Dawes' scheme. If ever a day comes when Germany breaks this accepted contract, America will be at our side in recalling her to a sense of her duties. In short, we have signed an insurance contract against all Dawes' Plan risks, and the premium we have to pay is by no means too high."

Fortunately for American foreign relations in future years, the European statesmen and newspapers, like the repentant parrot in the story, "talked too much." On January 17th, Senator Johnson, of California, introduced a resolution of inquiry asking the Secretary of State, if not incompatible with the public interest, for a copy of the agreement and for such information regarding its negotiating and execution as would be necessary for a full understanding of its terms. In answer to the inquiry, Secretary Hughes sent to the Senate, through the President, on February 3d, a copy of the agreement, and an accompanying letter. This letter showed that he had thoroughly in mind the European attitude on the matter and certain American criticisms as well, notably a sharp editorial attack by Mr. George Harvey, in the *Washington Post*, of January 18th.

Mr. Hughes stated in his letter, in clear and forceful terms, that the agreement makes no provision for sanctions, and does not commit the United States in any way to action in case the contemplated pay-



ments are not made. On January 19th, he had issued a similar statement to the press on the occasion of Mr. Harvey's article. These expressions of authoritative American interpretation will be of the greatest importance in the event of German default. They will form a conclusive answer to the inevitable European argument that the logical effect of our having signed the agreement is a moral duty to bring pressure or take steps to see that the Dawes' Plan is obeyed by Germany. It is not improbable that the Senate will pass a resolution reinforcing the attitude of the Executive. Such a resolution would carry additional weight, as coming from the branch of Congress whose assent is necessary to the ratification of treaties.

If these safeguards are not, in the opinion of the Senate, sufficient, they can attack the agreement itself through the statute prohibiting commissions appointed by the President from making binding agreements, or they might conceivably insist that the agreement is a treaty and refuse their sanction to it. The difficulty of such a stand is twofold: It would be actually ineffective, unless it involved legislation forbidding the Executive to accept funds under the agreement. Its net effect, if successful, would be to cut out America from reparations, for there is little hope of cash, except by means of the Dawes' Plan. The only other alternative would be to pay ourselves out of the German property now in the hands of the Alien Property Commissioner and let the Germans look to their own country for reimbursement. But this would be a complete reversal of our traditional attitude on the inviolability of private property in war.

Our ability to protect ourselves against European entanglement by reason of the Paris agreement is, however, reasonably plain.

#### WHAT IS OUR SHARE UNDER THE PARIS AGREEMENT?

The war claims of the United States against Germany amount to about 600 million dollars. Of this sum, 250 millions represent our expenses for the occupation of the Rhine after the Armistice, and 350 millions the claims against Germany for actual war damages. Prior to the Paris Agreement we had a contract with the Allies for the manner of payment from reparations of the Rhineland expenses, but not the war damage bill. The Allies had been at first disposed to ignore our claim for the Army of Occupation on the ground that America had not approved the Versailles Treaty. After vigorous American protest, that Article 9 of the Armistice Convention provided that Germany should pay such cost, that Article 251 of the Versailles treaty reaffirmed the right and made occupation costs a preferential claim, and that America had continued her occupation only at the earnest solicitation of the Allies, conferences were held in Paris in the winter of 1923 to discuss the matter. By an agreement negotiated by Mr. Eliot Wadsworth, Assistant Secretary of the Treasury, and signed on May 25, 1923, the amount due America was fixed at approximately 245 million dollars. This was to be paid in 12 annual payments of about 20

million dollars each from the General German reparations fund, to be increased by accumulated arrears. For four years the United States was to have a lien of one-fourth on reparations payments, and for the remaining eight years a lien of 100 per cent. on such payment, excepting certain other preferential claims. With the addition of arrears, Mr. Winston Churchill thinks the amount of preference claims might have reached 120 million gold marks annually, or 345 million dollars for the twelve-year term.

Under the terms of the new agreement, in settlement of both bills, America is to get a preferential claim for 55 million gold marks annually from reparations for 17 years. With the gold mark worth about four to the dollar, the amount of secured claim may be roughly stated at 233 millions of dollars. In addition, America is to have an annual share of  $2\frac{1}{4}$  per cent. in the general proceeds of the Dawes' Plan, "taking their chances for good or ill with the rest of the Allies," in Mr. Churchill's words.<sup>1</sup> The United States also gets \$14,725,144 now in bank for payment to her under the agreement of May 25, 1923.

That is, America has given up a recognized preferential claim, which might amount to 345 million dollars, for another secured claim, definitely fixed at about 250 millions, plus the chance of whatever the  $2\frac{1}{4}$  per cent. under the Dawes' Plan may bring. Whether we have made a good bargain or a bad will depend entirely on how well Germany keeps up her annual payments. Many feel that the annual payments under the Dawes' scheme, which start at 1000 million gold marks and reach 2500 million gold marks in five years, are far beyond Germany's capacity to pay. In any event, there is a material change in the security and the method of payment of an agreed amount, which fact gave rise to Senator Johnson's inquiry in his Senate speech of February 4th:

"Has the Executive branch of the Government power to determine without the consent or ratification of the Congress what shall be done with a liquidated debt of the Nation?"

Secretary Hughes rather airily disposes of the whole question with a brief paragraph at the end of his letter of February 3d, saying:

"This agreement was negotiated under the long recognized authority of the President to arrange for the payment of claims in favor of the United States and its nationals. The exercise of this authority has many illustrations, one of which is the agreement of 1901 for the so-called Boxer indemnity."

#### WHAT IS A TREATY?

What is a treaty? Under our Constitution all *treaties* are a joint product of the President and Senate. The President is given power to "make treaties by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, provided two-thirds of the Senators present concur."

But all international agreements are not technically or substantially treaties. The problem is where to draw the line. It is a matter of perennial discussion by the Senate as to just how far the President can go in arriving at understandings with foreign nations without its consent.

The President, as head of the Executive Department, has extensive powers in our relations with other states. He is Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy. He is the medium recognized by the Constitution for the conduct of diplomatic negotiations. These powers have been frequently used as the basis of "Executive Agreements" with foreign nations, without reference to the Senate. In some cases the subjects were trivial and of routine character, the sort of thing that did not demand a formal treaty. In other cases the President's right was seriously questioned in the Senate.

President Monroe agreed to a limitation of armament on the Great Lakes with the British Minister in 1817. However, he submitted the matter a year afterward to the Senate, and it received formal confirmation as a treaty. Several agreements were made with Mexico between 1882 and 1896 for the mutual pursuit of border Indians. In 1915, President Wilson suggested to the Mexican commissioners an extension of the arrangement to the reciprocal right to pursue outlaws. President Lincoln extradited a criminal to Spain without treaty.

Exchanges of notes with foreign ambassadors in Washington as declarations of foreign policy have been common. The Hay open-door policy of 1899-1900, the Root-Takahira and Lansing-Ishii agreements of 1908 and 1917, defining American policy in the Far East, and the Gentlemen's Agreement of 1907, relating to Japanese immigration, are of this character.

Claims against foreign countries on behalf of American citizens have not infrequently been settled by Executive Agreement. Secretary Hughes states the matter a bit strongly when he says there is uniform practice to settle claims of the United States thus. Professor Willoughby, a recognized authority on constitutional law, says there were no cases of financial claims on behalf of the United States settled by executive agreement prior to 1910. Since then there have been some instances, notably the Wedsworth agreement of 1923. However, there seems to have been no previous case of altering a liquidated debt.

The usual statement made as to the force of "Executive Agreements" is that they are limited to particular agreements on a temporary basis and to the Executive power actually at the President's disposal, and also that they rarely convey a moral obligation on a successor to continue them, or on the Senate to give them effect by formal use of the treaty ratification power.

The power of "Executive Agreement," while recognized within limits, is capable of being pushed to an extent which would clearly interfere with the Senate's constitutional rights. Indeed, in two cases in President Roosevelt's administration, it is demonstrable that the President did indirectly what he could not do directly, and that he continued in arrangements which were clearly without Senatorial approval.

#### ROOSEVELT'S "EXECUTIVE AGREEMENTS"

In 1905, in an attempt to keep off interference with Santo Domingo by European creditors, and to bring order out of her financial chaos, Roosevelt concluded an agreement with the Dominican Republic, whereby the customs houses of the island were placed under American control. Mr. Roosevelt told the story in his Autobiography as follows:

The Constitution did not give me explicit power to bring about the necessary agreement with Santo Domingo. But the Constitution did not forbid my doing what I did. I put the agreement into effect and I continued its execution for two years before the Senate acted; and I would have continued it until the end of my term, if necessary, without any action by Congress. But it was far preferable that there should be action by Congress, so that we might be proceeding under a treaty which was the law of the land, and not merely by a direction of the Chief Executive, which would lapse when that particular Executive left office. I, therefore, did my best to get the Senate to ratify what I had done. There was a good deal of difficulty about it. Enough Republicans were absent to prevent the securing of a two-thirds vote for the treaty, and the Senate adjourned without any action at all, and with the feeling of entire self-satisfaction at having left the country in the position of assuming a responsibility and then failing to fulfil it. Apparently, the Senators in question felt that in some way they had upheld their dignity. All that they had really done was to shirk their duty. Somebody had to do that duty, and accordingly I did it. I went ahead and administered the proposed treaty anyhow, considering it a simple agreement on the part of the Executive, which would be converted into a treaty whenever the Senate acted. After a couple of years the Senate did act, having previously made some utterly unimportant changes, which I ratified and persuaded Santo Domingo to ratify. In all its history, Santo Domingo has had nothing happen to it as fortunate as this treaty, and the passing of it saved the United States from having to face serious difficulties with one or more foreign powers.

Ex-President Taft, in his book, "Our Chief Magistrate," thus describes an executive agreement made by him as Secretary of War under authority of President Roosevelt. The subject was the relative jurisdictions of the United States and Panama in the cities of Colon and Panama at either end of the Canal:

The Plan contained a great many different provisions. I had no power to make a treaty with Panama, but I did have, with the authority of the President, the right to make rules equivalent to law in the Zone. I, therefore, issued an order directing the carrying out of the plan agreed upon, in so far as it was necessary to carry it out on our side of the line, on condition that and as long as the regulations made by Panama were enforced by that government. This was approved by Secretary Hay, and the President, and has constituted down until the present day, I believe, the basis on which the two governments are carried on in this close proximity. It was attacked vigorously in the Senate as a usurpation of the treaty making power of the Senate, and I was summoned before a committee in the Senate to justify what had been done. There was a great deal of eloquence over this usurpation of the Senate's prerogative by Mr. Morgan and other Senators, but the *modus vivendi* continued as the practical agreement between the nations for more than seven years, and my impression is that it is still in force in most of its provisions.

In both of these cases the President was able, because of his Executive power, to make and keep Executive agreements in effect without the Senate's approval and despite the criticism of certain Senators.

If a majority of Congress had been actively hostile the President would probably have had to give way. In Santo Domingo, appropriations could have been refused to permit the use of the Army or Navy or civilian employees of the Government in customs supervision. In Panama, Congress could have enacted legislation to govern the American territory which would have annulled the Executive's orders.

The episode of the Boxer rebellion to which Mr. Hughes refers is closer to the case of the Paris Agreement. The United States joined with several European powers in 1900 in an expedition to relieve the foreign legations under siege at Peking, and to punish China for outrages upon foreign life and property. Hostilities were brought to a close by a protocol, which the President authorized American representatives to sign. This agreement not only terminated military operations, but settled the indemnity which China should pay, required her to raze certain forts, and required her to co-operate in improving various water highways. Obviously, this was a mixture of an armistice, which the President as Commander-in-Chief had power to conclude, and a treaty which he did not have sole power to conclude. The Senate did not insist on its right of ratification, for such action would have served no useful purpose. To refuse to ratify the protocol would have been to renounce the benefits of the international arrangement, and it was, moreover, a good settlement, which common sense indicated should have been settled on the spot by joint action of the interested powers.

#### IS THE PARIS AGREEMENT A SIMILAR CASE?

The Paris Agreement is, in many aspects, parallel. The Allies were about to make arrangements for a distribution of receipts under the Dawes' Plan. The President naturally wished the United States to get her proper share and sent representatives to the Conference. Our delegates used their judgment as to the fairness of the sums and percentages offered and then signed, presumably after cable communication with the Secretary of State and the President. The Senate may think that our representatives have made a foolish bargain in the exchange of security, they may think that the President should have consulted them before taking so important a step. But will an insistence on Senatorial prerogative serve the best interests of the nation?

To repudiate the arrangement will mean the failure to participate under the Dawes' Plan, and all of Germany's assets for an indefinite period are pledged under it. Smarting under the American denial of responsibility for collection, the Allies can hardly be expected to consider giving us greater guarantees or a greater percentage of receipts. They would urge that duly accredited representatives of the United States had formally assented to America's allotted share after full discussion and debate, and that a rehearing of the matter is out of order and out of reason. If it is a bad bargain, it looks like a choice between ratifying the bargain and getting

what we can, and the possible demanding of more, with no conceivable way of getting it, except by selling and appropriating German property in our hands.

The President's control of this aspect of the treaty-making power seems closely akin to his power in opening military hostilities. Under our Constitution only Congress may declare war. But experience has shown again and again that the President may, nevertheless, get the country into a situation in which war is almost inevitable. In 1846 we had a boundary dispute with Mexico. President Polk moved American troops into the disputed area, the Mexican garrison fired on them, and the President notified Congress that war with Mexico existed by Mexico's own act! In 1895, President Cleveland, in a message to Congress, referred to England's attitude in the Venezuelan boundary controversy in terms that might very easily have been taken by that nation as a cause for war. In 1898, President McKinley saw fit to send the battleship *Maine* to Havana at a time when tension with Spain was great; the *Maine* was blown up and war followed. There is a wide gap between theory and fact in the power to declare war.

So, also, in the matter of treaties. It is all very well for the Constitution to say that treaties are to be made by the President with the advice and consent of two-thirds of the Senate. It is sound theory for writers on constitutional law to limit the President's power in executive agreements to those of a provisional nature, which he is able to carry into effect as Chief Executive, and to say that it is always a matter of fair question whether they may be considered to have any moral force in binding his successor or the Senate. As long as the President has his power under the Constitution to send treaty negotiators abroad, there will always be the possibility of the Senate's being faced with an irrevocable decision on some important subject by an international conference, through agreement by the American delegates present.

Once American armistice negotiators agree with the other powers that China shall pay a certain indemnity and suffer certain pains and penalties, once Ambassadors Kellogg and Herrick and Colonel Logan have placed their signatures on the dotted line in formal recognition that a doubtful arrangement is fair enough from the American standpoint, it becomes idle to talk of Senatorial Prerogative. Some treaties and protocols can be repudiated by the Senate, in conformity with their constitutional right, without loss to American interests, and some quite obviously cannot.

That the Executive and its representatives used their best efforts to protect American interests at the Paris Conference is unquestioned. Whether a committee representing the Senate alone could have done any better must remain in the realm of conjecture.

<sup>1</sup> There is considerable doubt whether this 2¼ per cent. is of all moneys received under the Dawes' Plan, or of the net proceeds after deduction of expenses and preferential claims. The texts given out in Washington and in London differ on the point.



# The Birth of the European System of Alliances\*

## New Light Derived from the Recently Published German Documents

BY EDGAR N. JOHNSON, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

We have been taught, and, indeed, correctly, to regard the Congress of Berlin in 1878 as the second decisive check of the nineteenth century to Russian ambition in the Near East. In the light of what followed immediately after, the Congress must also be regarded as the point of departure for that system of alliances around which European history revolved in ever-narrowing circles up to the dénouement of 1914. Indeed, careful study of the period from the Austro-German alliance of 1879 to 1914 will probably in time show how every important thing that happened, and many of the still more important things that failed to happen, may all alike be traced back in greater or less part to this event of 1879, by which they were all conditioned.†

It was not to be expected that the "honest broker" at the Congress of Berlin should satisfy his Russian client. As early as August, 1878, the Tsar had branded the work of the Congress as "a European coalition against Russia, under the leadership of Bismarck," who had made Schuvalow his dupe from the beginning.<sup>1</sup> The head of the Russian delegation, Bismarck's old foe, Gortschakow, was already losing the Tsar's confidence, and Bismarck suggested that he would be a more proper target for the tirades of the Russian press than Schuvalow and himself, since it was really he that was to blame for Russia's mistakes.

By August, 1879, Russia's attitude had become more specific and more truculent. She was not satisfied with Bismarck's instructions to the German representatives on the various international commissions set up by the Treaty of Berlin to vote, on all questions not involving Germany's specific interest, with Russia and Austria when they agreed, and when they differed to remain neutral. Bismarck, however, officially declined to go further in the support of Russia.<sup>2</sup> To him, even this policy of benevolent neutrality was now being endangered by the attitude not only of the Russian press, but of the Tsar himself, and the risk was taken by the side which did the threatening.<sup>3</sup> He was then convinced that in view of the whole attitude of Russia since 1875, Germany could no longer risk isolation for Russia's sake, nor rely upon her good will, nor be influenced by her unfriendliness, and he lost no time in imparting his conclusions to the Kaiser.<sup>4</sup>

\* For assistance in transcribing German documents, I wish to express thanks to my friend, Mr. John Dean Bickford.

† This paper is based chiefly upon the documents of the German Foreign Office, now published in Vol. 3 of "Die Grosse Politik der Europäischen Kabinette, 1871-1914"; Berlin, 1922. These documents are referred to by number only in the notes appended to this paper.

The Tsar hastened developments by writing a letter<sup>5</sup> to his dear uncle and friend on August 15th, which for Bismarck became a veritable *bête noire*. The Tsar complained in no uncertain terms of the threatened rupture of their century-old friendship. Why should he be met with German opposition when the Russians were only attempting to put into effect their purpose in entering the Turkish war; namely, the amelioration of the poor plight of the Balkan Christians? He understood perfectly that Germany wished to conserve good relations with Austria, but he could not understand Germany's interest in sacrificing to Austria the interests of Russia when those interests did not affect Germany. Surely the Kaiser had not forgotten Russia's great service in massing troops on the Austrian frontier in 1870. He thought it his duty to remind the Kaiser of the unhappy consequences which all this might provoke in their relations as good neighbors by aggravating the irritation of the two nations towards each other, as the press of both was even then beginning to do. He closed with this little prayer: "May God preserve us from such danger and inspire you."

Bismarck was sure now that he, at least, had already received his inspiration. The Tsar's letter, he pointed out to the Kaiser,<sup>6</sup> was both threatening and tactless, nor were even the facts as to Austrian neutrality in 1870 so simple as the Tsar pretended.<sup>7</sup> In particular, the letter revealed the ascendancy in Russia, and the personal influence upon the Tsar, of the pan-Slavic, anti-German faction. (Bismarck meant Miljutin and his party, although when he came to write his memoirs he stated<sup>8</sup> that he had immediately recognized the influence of Gortschakow, "un homme mort," perhaps, to the Tsar,<sup>9</sup> but to Bismarck "a calamity for Russia."<sup>10</sup>) Henceforth, an Austrian, not a Russian, alliance seemed to offer more security. Accordingly, he asked for permission to visit Vienna: if security was to come from Vienna it seemed plain that Vienna was the place to go for security. But the Kaiser refused permission to go to Vienna. He remembered 1866, and, as to 1870, he agreed with his dear nephew and friend.

But even if Bismarck might not go to Vienna, Andrassy, the Austro-Hungarian foreign minister, might perhaps be found elsewhere. Ever since his accession to the foreign office in 1871, Andrassy had aimed at an alliance with Germany to replace the "unnatural" alliance with Russia involved in the *Drei-Kaiser-Bund* of 1873. He had striven to conciliate Italy and England, and to make clear to France that no anti-French policy on Austria's part was implied by an alliance with Germany. According to Wertheimer, however,<sup>11</sup> Bismarck had "played



deaf," even after Alsace-Lorraine, until he began to mistrust Russia after the difficulty of the Spanish succession in 1874. By the time the Congress of Berlin had passed he was all ears and now he was even anxious to do some of the talking. Already, on August 13th, upon receipt of the news of Andrassy's approaching retirement, he had telegraphed from Kissingen, where he was taking one of his rest cures, to arrange a meeting with Andrassy. The latter eagerly agreed, naming Gastein as the place of meeting.<sup>12</sup>

At Gastein, accordingly, on August 27th-28th, Bismarck learned that Andrassy would gladly undertake negotiations for a defensive alliance and would commit his successor to their completion.<sup>13</sup> Bismarck had contemplated a general defensive alliance, but Andrassy made it very clear from the first that he would not hear to that for a moment: the alliance must be specifically against a possible attack by Russia or by another power with Russia's aid. In that sense, he wrote to Bismarck from Schönbrunn on September 1st, recalling their conversation at Gastein. Nor could Bismarck himself have pressed his point very hard. He himself merely says:<sup>14</sup> "My proposition to extend the alliance to other than Russian attacks found no favor with the Count." But on August 29th, Andrassy's friend, Baron Orczy, wrote to his mother: "They seem to have understood each other perfectly."<sup>15</sup> Andrassy also assured Bismarck of Franz Josef's full agreement and undertook to postpone his retirement until their purpose should have been achieved.<sup>16</sup>

Bismarck, however, seems to have been reading ahead while his master's back was turned. On August 28th the Kaiser wrote to the Tsar what was meant to be a very reassuring letter.<sup>17</sup> His instructions to his representatives on the various commissions set up by the Congress of Berlin had not changed since the début of the oriental question. He had seen no trace in any of their reports (perhaps he had not seen all their reports!) of hostility towards Russia. Bismarck, who had always been a faithful friend to Russia, remained so still, in spite of the calumnies of the Russian press and misrepresentations to the Tsar. Nothing must ever compromise "the sacred legacy" of their friendship (that was a phrase that Bismarck had been so unfortunate as to use, intending to impress the Tsar, not, as it turned out, the Kaiser).<sup>18</sup>

But the Tsar would not be comforted. A meeting with the Kaiser was immediately arranged for September 3d at Alexandrovo. Bismarck at once objected<sup>19</sup> on several plausible grounds, but most probably, in fact, because, having convinced himself, he did not wish anything to make the remaining task of convincing the Kaiser more difficult than he suspected it would be, anyway. But the Kaiser was determined to go.<sup>20</sup> It was too late to change plans, he wrote Bismarck, and, in any case, he regarded the visit as purely personal. The meeting accordingly took place, but in the Kaiser's interview with

the Tsar and three of his ministers there seems to have been nothing new.<sup>21</sup> The only result was to confirm the Kaiser in his previous ideas.

Meanwhile, before he went to Alexandrovo, the Kaiser had received a small volume of advice from Bismarck,<sup>22</sup> which impressed him favorably enough to authorize Bismarck at once to take up the question with Vienna,<sup>23</sup> provided that nothing was done without his participation. This letter, accordingly, won the first trick for Bismarck over the Kaiser, but it is important still more, because in it we find the first statement of Bismarck's reasoning.

In this first lecture Bismarck deals only with fundamentals. Events since 1864 expose Germany to the danger of isolation. That Russia can now less than ever be regarded as a source of security for Germany is demonstrated not only by the attitude of the Russian press, but by the tone of Russian official communications during the past two years. Moreover, the concentration of Russian troops upon the German frontier continues. There is no assurance that the Tsar, who is at present the only security for Germany, will continue to resist the anti-German pressure, even though he maintains his personal friendship with the Kaiser. Of his successor there is even less assurance. On the other hand, an Austrian alliance, "present in my mind since 1866,"<sup>24</sup> now seems inevitable. It would secure both powers against Russian attack, and this with so little threat of joint aggression against Russia that she might even become a third party to it later on. Moreover, Austria, likewise, must look for security, which, if she cannot get from Germany, she will be forced to turn to France. This would be dangerous for Germany, because it would remove French isolation, even if it did not lead to a triple alliance against Germany, and equally dangerous to Russia, because, at least, for the moment, it would align Austria with western Europe. England, however, would regard with favor an Austro-German alliance, possibly even become a member later. Thus, the danger of a direct Russo-French alliance is greatly reduced. Postponement is not much longer possible, and, he plainly says, "I cannot officially consent to neglect this opportunity." It is especially noteworthy how nowhere in his whole argument does Bismarck allow his distrust of Russia to overinfluence him: if possible, he will still have it that Germany's interest may also be Russia's, or, at least, that Germany's interest may not actually conflict with Russia's; in any case, the Russian door must be kept wide open until Germany is sure of Austria, and as open as possible always.<sup>25</sup> One bird in the hand and one in the bush is better than these two in either place just then; if the one can be transferred to the hand, so much the better. It is at the end of this letter that Bismarck repeats his request to visit Vienna, in order that he may at least explain to Andrassy the Kaiser's reasons for declining the outstretched hand, and do what he can to keep Austria under Andrassy's successor from an alliance with France. This time, as we have seen,

he got permission, only a week after he was first refused. And, meanwhile, he had seen Andrassy once, anyway. He does not say what he thought of that first week's work, which he had had in mind since 1866.

In a second letter,<sup>26</sup> of September 5th, Bismarck concentrated his attention on Russia. A mild tone to Russia now is merely postponing the trouble, for Germany can never depend upon Russia's good will, except as one of three allies; whereas, if Russia does not join an Austro-German alliance, Germany can still get along without her good will. Moreover, unlike Germany and Austria, Russia needs no defensive ally. Two days later Bismarck continues the attack. To explain away the Tsar's letter and the tone of the Russian press is only to explain away symptoms. The peril to Germany remains: Russian troops are concentrated on her borders and the Tsar remains under the influence of her foes. Pan-Slavism he calls "ein slawische Napoleonismus," which would cease to be a danger to European peace once Austria and Germany were united for defense. Furthermore, such an alliance would strengthen the conservative elements in Russia herself, and so actually tend to eliminate the danger of revolutionary pan-Slavism from within. As for Russia's momentary official inclination towards Germany,<sup>27</sup> that is due not to the Kaiser's friendliness, but to his own readiness immediately to look elsewhere, also to the fact that Russia had received no encouragement to hope for an alliance at Paris, Vienna, or, one might add, Rome. Now, not later, is the opportunity to secure, at one stroke, Germany's peace with Russia and with France, and to forestall the danger of an Austro-Russo-French coalition. Then he takes another definite step forward. His permission to visit Vienna is valueless alone: he must also have full power to act.

By the first of these broadsides the Kaiser was convinced that rather than be guilty of such "perfidy" to Russia he must abdicate. By the second he was convinced of the same thing.<sup>28</sup> Bismarck might confer with Andrassy about possibilities, but he would never consent to an alliance. The Crown Prince was convinced, but suggested more delay than Bismarck considered possible. Von Bülow, the foreign secretary, thought that only a personal interview with Bismarck could convince the Kaiser.<sup>29</sup> Neither of these suggestions suited Bismarck.<sup>30</sup> Andrassy would not wait indefinitely, and besides, his own health, which had led him to wish to retire as early as the spring of 1877, would not permit him to continue at all with the prospect of continuous and fatiguing disagreement with His Majesty. When Bismarck played that card, we may always be sure that the play was getting too slow for him; also, that he expected that card to take the trick.

"I have no doubt of His Majesty's final agreement," so wrote Bismarck to the German ambassador at Vienna on September 12th.<sup>31</sup> We may well be surprised, but we may safely take his word for it. Being well acquainted with both His Majesty and himself, he had anticipated "an opposition sure

to be determined, rather by idiosyncrasy than by policy."<sup>32</sup> Perhaps he remembered the slight delay in securing permission to visit Vienna. Doubtless, in order to give His Majesty something more specific to agree to, he authorized the ambassador to take up confidentially with Andrassy alone the terms of "our eventual agreement," which must emphasize, first, the joint concern of Austria and Germany for peace with Russia, and, second, the purely defensive character of the alliance.

Bismarck then so far forgets His Majesty as to outline for the ambassador his conception of the provisions of the treaty. It is noteworthy that he outlines just such an alliance as Andrassy had stipulated at Gastein; he says nothing whatever of such a general defensive alliance as he had originally desired. Therefore, when he wrote to Otto von Bülow, of the Kaiser's suite, on September 14th,<sup>33</sup> that he was going to take this question up in Vienna *again*, he was talking at the Kaiser. He could hardly have had any hope of success, nor could he have had the slightest intention of seriously insisting on the point. He was so obviously ready to take what he could get that he could not have been in the least surprised when he found in Vienna that he could get no more than Andrassy had already promised.<sup>34</sup>

By September 14th, the Kaiser seems to have forgotten that he will never agree to an alliance with Austria, for now he throws a new wrench into the machinery by insisting that Russia must not be mentioned specifically in the treaty itself, and he brandishes a third wrench in the air by stipulating that he must submit in advance a draft of the alliance to the Tsar.<sup>35</sup> Bismarck's machinery seems to have swallowed the first wrench successfully, but what of the second? Bismarck at once replied that the question of mentioning Russia could not be decided without consulting Austria.<sup>36</sup> The Kaiser was then showered with more advice. Stolberg, the vice-president of the ministry, rushed to his wobbling side with all the official influence of the ministry.<sup>37</sup> Moltke, too, from purely military considerations agreed with Bismarck *in toto*. There was the General Staff.<sup>38</sup> How long, then, would the second wrench stop the machinery from grinding?

Meanwhile, amidst an exchange of telegrams, Bismarck wrote his last long argument to the Kaiser. He regrets at great length that he can find in the Kaiser's memoranda of his visit at Alexandrovo no reason to change his mind about Russia.<sup>39</sup> If Austria should be attacked by Russia, Germany would have to assist her, treaty or no treaty, having meanwhile, if the treaty is now declined, gained nothing from it. If Germany should be attacked by Russia she would have to get Austria's assistance at any price, which now may be had at no price. Since Germany must get some ally, better, apart from all other considerations, for her to ally herself for defense with a peaceful and conservative Austria, than for offense with the pan-Slavic revolution. Let the Kaiser consult those he most trusts to determine to what extent Bis-

marck's peculiar distrust of Russia is shared by others.

Henceforth, the Kaiser raised no further objection to a general defensive alliance with Austria, which he knew in fact to be directed against Russia. Moreover, by this time it seems to have been tacitly assumed by both sides, although in the documents there is no categorical statement to that effect, that Bismarck did have authority to negotiate such an alliance.<sup>40</sup> But should Russia be mentioned? Bismarck did not commit himself in this regard until he had made sure of Austria's wishes. Austria, out of consideration for England and France, insisted on Russia's being named. Andrassy suggested that Austria would be willing specifically to guarantee Alsace in return for consent to mention Russia, but this proved unacceptable to Bismarck. He would, as we have seen, been best satisfied with a general defensive clause "against any attack." But Andrassy required "precision and clearness as to the purpose of the agreement": Russia must be named. That did not mean an offense against Russia, nor exclude Russia from joining later. If that did happen, so much the more necessity to have named Russia; otherwise, the unnamed attacking power would seem to be France.<sup>41</sup> Andrassy was evidently not interested in making Germany secure against France, nor willing to risk good relations with France or England. Russia, from the Austrian point of view, must be named. Russia, from the Kaiser's point of view, must not be named. Bismarck was in a dilemma; he did not care whether Russia were named or not. What he wanted was an alliance.

In Vienna, Bismarck was received by Franz Josef graciously, and by the populace with apparently spontaneous enthusiasm.<sup>42</sup> But even from Vienna the Kaiser seemed a more vulnerable point of attack than Andrassy. In his first dispatch, on September 24th,<sup>43</sup> Bismarck produced his trump card, at which he had already allowed the German ambassador at Vienna to have a peep,<sup>44</sup> and which he now slipped to Otto von Bülow to play only in case of necessity: if the Kaiser should persist in his refusal to agree to Austria's insistence upon mentioning Russia, and thereby sacrifice the whole treaty, he must resign at once. He would try persuasion first, though he had "little hope that the dead letters of my argumentation would alter the view of His Majesty, which [he repeats] rested rather on mental idiosyncrasy than on political calculation."<sup>45</sup> On the same day he explained fully to the Kaiser<sup>46</sup> why Austria preferred even to imperil the treaty with Germany, rather than to imperil her good relations with France or England by the slightest suspicion of an Austro-German alliance against France. He agrees, he says, with the Austrian argument, for the new reason that to risk driving France from fear into the arms of Russia would be dangerous for Germany also, and for the old reason that the mention of Russia in the treaty would by no means exclude Russia from joining the alliance later. To this letter was appended a memorandum of the preliminary conversation be-

tween Andrassy and Bismarck, a copy of the protocol and the first draft of the treaty.<sup>47</sup> From all this we must conclude that Bismarck scarcely troubled Andrassy again with his original proposal of a general alliance. Whatever he did do by way of reopening the question in Vienna, as he said he intended, must have been so slight that not only is there no indication of it in the documents, but he does not even allude to it in his memoirs.

For the Kaiser's benefit Bismarck analyzes the provisions of the treaty: it prevents any alliance of Austria with France, or France and Russia, or with Russia independently of Germany; it guarantees Austrian neutrality in case of a French attack on Germany, and Austrian aid in case of an attack by Russia and France, or Russia alone. Moreover, there are actual advantages to Germany in having Russia named as possible aggressor, as compared with a general defensive alliance, such as the Kaiser insists upon: not only is danger of a French alliance with Russia precluded, but Italy and Turkey are thus wholly excluded from reckoning.

The Kaiser noted the objections that first occurred to him on the margin of Bismarck's letter, the old objection to naming Russia, and a brand new one: Germany and Austria promise mutual aid against an attack by Russia alone; whereas, in the event of an attack by France alone, which for Germany, at least, is an even greater danger, Austria promises only neutrality. In fact, that was at least one point where Bismarck, in his heart, agreed absolutely with the Kaiser: a general defensive alliance he had given up hope of only because it was clearly impossible, and better half a loaf than none. Bismarck had also hope that the agreement might be "an organic connection, which should not be published like ordinary treaties, but should be incorporated in the legislation of both empires"; whereas, Austria insisted upon a secret ministerial agreement: there again better something than nothing.<sup>48</sup>

On the 26th, the Kaiser was still holding out against naming Russia. Otto von Bülow telegraphed Bismarck that only a personal interview between him and the Kaiser would suffice. To this, Bismarck has nothing more to say, nor physical strength to travel; let Otto von Bülow delay no longer in telling the Kaiser of Bismarck's retirement. "What I want is certainty," he says.<sup>49</sup> Two days later, in Berlin, at a meeting, with Bismarck present, the Ministry assured him of their agreement, and dispatched Stolberg to the Kaiser at Baden with orders to bring to bear the whole weight of the government and play the trump of Bismarck's retirement.<sup>50</sup> This had its immediate effect. The Kaiser's chief objection was now to the secrecy clause of the treaty (Article IV). Everything would be all right if he could write a letter to his dear nephew and friend telling him all about it.<sup>51</sup>

Since Bismarck had it on good authority that such a message would cause no real surprise in Russia, which would accept the situation in a peaceful manner, he submitted the question to Andrassy. Andrassy wanted no further procrastination, either.



Let the Kaiser, he telegraphed on October 3d,<sup>52</sup> communicate to the Tsar, not the contents of the actual treaty, to be sure, but only the memorandum of the preliminary conversation, and this only after Germany had signed the treaty. For Austria is not willing to risk the protracted negotiations which Russia would otherwise begin. Unless Germany agreed to this, Austria will have to abandon the treaty altogether.

The Kaiser was now ready for his last stand. The Kaiser had given permission to Bismarck to go to Vienna. The Kaiser had given Bismarck authority to negotiate. The Kaiser perceived that Russia was to be mentioned in the treaty. "But how about the Tsar?" he insisted. "How about your signing?" queried Bismarck. The Kaiser, in fact, agreed at 11 P. M., on October 2d,<sup>53</sup> to sign, stipulating, however, further explanation to the Tsar than the forwarding of the official memorandum to him.<sup>54</sup> Bismarck wanted no more stipulations. On October 3d, Otto von Bülow was instructed by him to put before the Kaiser the definite alternatives of signing the draft of the treaty, as submitted that day, or having no chancellor the next.<sup>55</sup> Unless the Kaiser signs at once he will announce his resignation on October 5th. When the Kaiser saw the ace of trumps before him on the table he agreed to sign. As Bismarck so tactfully put it, "He was averse to ministerial changes."<sup>56</sup>

He still had, however, a few kicks left. He was not feeling comfortable. On October 3d, he had written to Foreign Minister Bülow, who was ill at the time, "My moral strength is shattered. I don't know what will become of me." The next day he felt stronger. After Bismarck's threat of resignation, and after what he calls "my enforced agreement to the treaty," he writes Bismarck: "I still think as I did. What shall we say to the Tsar if he asks to see the treaty? You must answer this question."<sup>57</sup> Furthermore, Austria must promise against France what Germany promises to Austria against Russia: Bismarck must take this matter up with Andrassy. Perhaps the Alliance with Austria was not so bad after all. It would be even better if it provided security against France. Of course, it would: Bismarck thought so, too. But that he had relegated to the realm of things hoped for.

When he received these new objections from the Kaiser, which seemed to make everything doubtful again, Bismarck, having already played his ace of trumps, felt impelled to pound upon the table. Unless, he telegraphs on October 5th,<sup>58</sup> the ambassador at Vienna gets authority by telegram, which Andrassy had already demanded the day before, and then in writing, with no further delay, "I will resign at once and the whole ministry with me." He says later that this was "a method of procedure extremely against my grain,"<sup>59</sup> but there was certainly no sign of hesitation or reluctance when the moment to adopt it seemed to have arrived. The pounding did the trick. Telegraphic and written authorizations were forwarded to Vienna,<sup>60</sup> but the Kaiser insisted upon postponing a fortnight the date of the formal ratification.

The Kaiser now felt bound to sign the treaty, but he felt bound also to abdicate if his wishes, especially in regard to Austrian aid in case of a French attack, were not respected.<sup>61</sup> Otto von Bülow urged Bismarck to write another reassuring letter to the Kaiser. This was too much for Bismarck. He could not, he said, and we may suspect would not, if he could, write another letter to the Kaiser. He satisfied himself with a brief argument by telegram,<sup>62</sup> which seems to have put an end to the Kaiser's protestations, though it contained nothing new. Perhaps the Kaiser, too, was getting tired. The treaty, word for word as it stood, was signed at Vienna on October 7th, by the Germany ambassador and Andrassy in the presence of Haymerle, Andrassy's immediate successor.<sup>63</sup>

In due time the Kaiser forwarded his ratification to Vienna. Although Bismarck opposed a personal letter to the Tsar, in addition to the aforementioned diplomatic memorandum, he was not willing to insist too strongly on the point. The Emperor was permitted to send a personal letter also to his dear nephew.<sup>64</sup> Doubtless, it pleased Bismarck to be able with a good conscience to yield to his Kaiser in something. After all, they were old friends.

On October 8th, Bismarck was informed by telegram that His Majesty had passed a sleepless night and was nervously exhausted that day. Bismarck, after weeks of sleepless nights,<sup>65</sup> no doubt, slept that night one of his soundest sleeps, with the infant alliance safe in the cradle by his side.

#### Notes

- <sup>1</sup> No. 440.    <sup>2</sup> No. 442.    <sup>3</sup> No. 444.    <sup>4</sup> No. 445.
- <sup>5</sup> No. 446.    <sup>6</sup> No. 447.
- <sup>7</sup> Wertheimer (Graf Julius Andrassy, *Sein Leben und Seine Zeit*, III, p. 235, note) claims that Austrian neutrality was secured anyway by Andrassy's influence.
- <sup>8</sup> Gedanken und Erinnerungen, II, 219.
- <sup>9</sup> No. 460.    <sup>10</sup> No. 440.
- <sup>11</sup> Graf Julius Andrassy, III, 225-227.
- <sup>12</sup> *Ibid.*, III, 231-232.
- <sup>13</sup> No. 449.
- <sup>14</sup> Reflections and Reminiscences (English translation of Gedanken und Erinnerungen), II, 260.
- <sup>15</sup> Wertheimer, III, 243-4.
- <sup>16</sup> Wertheimer, III, 253.
- <sup>17</sup> No. 448.
- <sup>18</sup> Wertheimer, III, 246.
- <sup>19</sup> No. 451.    <sup>20</sup> No. 452.    <sup>21</sup> No. 457.    <sup>22</sup> No. 455.
- <sup>23</sup> No. 456.
- <sup>24</sup> See Livever above, and cf. the reference to Wertheimer, III, 225-7.
- <sup>25</sup> No. 454.    <sup>26</sup> No. 458.    <sup>27</sup> No. 453.    <sup>28</sup> Nos. 460, 462.
- <sup>29</sup> No. 462.    <sup>30</sup> No. 464.    <sup>31</sup> No. 467.
- <sup>32</sup> Reflections and Reminiscences, II, 260.
- <sup>33</sup> No. 469.    <sup>34</sup> Nos. 475 and 478.    <sup>35</sup> No. 470.
- <sup>36</sup> No. 471.    <sup>37</sup> No. 472.    <sup>38</sup> No. 473.
- <sup>39</sup> Nos. 457, 465, 466, 477.    <sup>40</sup> No. 474.    <sup>41</sup> No. 480.
- <sup>42</sup> Wertheimer, III, 278-9.
- <sup>43</sup> No. 481.    <sup>44</sup> No. 467.
- <sup>45</sup> Reflections and Reminiscences, II, p. 269.
- <sup>46</sup> No. 482.
- <sup>47</sup> Nos. 483, 484, 485; also in Pribram, "The Secret Treaties of Austria-Hungary," English edition by A. C. Coolidge, 1920, Vol. I, pp. 19ff.
- <sup>48</sup> No. 407.    <sup>49</sup> No. 486.    <sup>50</sup> No. 487.    <sup>51</sup> No. 488.
- <sup>52</sup> No. 489.    <sup>53</sup> No. 493.    <sup>54</sup> No. 492.    <sup>55</sup> No. 490.
- <sup>56</sup> Reflections and Reminiscences, II, p. 271.
- <sup>57</sup> No. 496.    <sup>58</sup> No. 497.
- <sup>59</sup> Reflections and Reminiscences, II, p. 271.
- <sup>60</sup> No. 498.    <sup>61</sup> No. 499.    <sup>62</sup> No. 500.    <sup>63</sup> No. 501.
- <sup>64</sup> No. 502-509, inc.    <sup>65</sup> No. 504.



# How Uncle Sam Cares for His Lepers

BY PROFESSOR E. M. VIOLETTE, LOUISIANA STATE UNIVERSITY

Of the numerous institutions maintained by the United States government, perhaps the least widely known, but none the less highly important, is the national leprosarium, officially listed as United States Marine Hospital, Number 66, at Carville, Louisiana, a point on the Mississippi River about eighty miles above New Orleans. At present there are 185 lepers from all parts of the country receiving care and treatment at this place, but in the course of time, if the plans of the United States Public Health Service are realized, all those afflicted with leprosy in the forty-eight states of the Union, estimated at about 1,200, will be segregated there. When this is accomplished, an effective check, it is confidently believed, will thereby be put upon the further spread of this terrible disease throughout the country.

Leprosy has been in existence in the United States for at least two hundred years, and has appeared in over thirty states in the Union. Cases have been found in practically all the coast states, particularly Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, Florida, Louisiana, Texas, California, and Oregon, where the foreign immigration has been very large. They have also appeared in many of the interior states, most noticeably in Michigan, Illinois, and Minnesota, where there is likewise a large foreign element in the population.

The United States government until recently made no productive effort to take care of or provide treatment for lepers, leaving that matter entirely to the different states or their municipal divisions. But nearly forty years ago a commission of experts, appointed by the Surgeon General to investigate the origin and prevalence of leprosy in the United States, recognized the inadequacy of such a policy and recommended that the government should establish a national leprosarium to which all lepers in the United States should be brought as soon as possible. Congress did not act upon that recommendation, however, until 1917, when it passed an act providing in the main for what the commission had suggested.

The United States Public Health Service, into whose hands the establishment of a national leprosarium was committed, began at once to search for a suitable location, but this proved to be no small task. Very few states were willing to have such an institution within their midst. Indeed, most of them objected most strenuously. Finally it was deemed advisable not to establish a new institution, but take over one already organized and maintained by some state or city. There were at that time three well-organized leprosaria in continental United States, one maintained by Louisiana at Carville, another by Massachusetts at Penikese Island, in Buzzards Bay, and another by the city of San Francisco. Of these three the one in Louisiana had the greatest

number of patients, about four times as many as in the other two combined, and possessed, moreover, the best possibilities for future development. Arrangements were therefore made with the Louisiana Legislature for the purchase of the leprosarium at Carville, and the transfer was effected in January, 1921.

Louisiana was among the first states in the Union in which leprosy appeared. According to tradition the disease was brought in by the French Acadians, when they came to Louisiana as exiles from Nova Scotia in the middle of the eighteenth century, and the fact that it has been more prevalent among them than any other class of people in the state tends to make the tradition plausible. But it is believed by those who have studied the matter most thoroughly that leprosy came into Louisiana from the West Indies, particularly from Martinique and Cuba, where it has prevailed more or less widely for a long time. At any rate, there were lepers in Louisiana when it was a Spanish province. Governor Miro, mentioning in an official dispatch to the Spanish government, dated November 30, 1788, that a hospital for lepers in Louisiana had been erected near New Orleans.

Up to thirty years ago whatever care and attention the lepers in Louisiana received came from local communities or charitable organizations. But this method proved to be a failure; indeed, leprosy became more widespread in Louisiana than in any other state in the Union, more than half of the fifty-nine parishes or counties of the state having become involved with the scourge. It was seen that the state must take a hand in the matter if it was to be dealt with effectively, and so in 1894 the Louisiana legislature provided for the establishment and maintenance of a leper home. An old abandoned sugar plantation of nearly 400 acres near Carville was acquired and gradually put in condition for the care and treatment of lepers. It was this plant that was sold to the United States government in 1921.

Extensive improvements have been made in the home since it was taken over by the government, nearly \$1,000,000 having been appropriated for that purpose, and when, in a few months more, the buildings now under construction are completed, there will be accommodations for about 450 patients. The patients are being housed in concrete and tile cottages, built around a quadrangle and connected with each other by a continuous covered walk. Each cottage has all the modern conveniences and contains twelve single bedrooms and a common recreation room. In the center of the quadrangle is the dining hall, where meals are served in cafeteria style to all the patients who can get about. Nearby is an infirmary with fifty beds for those who are in need of special medical attention.

Because of the loathsomeness of the disease, and the social ostracism that it entails, leprosy has a peculiarly depressing effect upon the minds of its victims. As a curative measure, and also for disciplinary purposes, every effort is made to divert the attention of the lepers at Carville from their state and condition and develop thereby the highest possible morale among them. To this end all those who are not altogether incapacitated are employed at various jobs within that portion of the colony to which they are restricted, ranging from common chores to assisting the nurses, according to their physical strength and mental fitness. And to take away, in part at least, that more or less humiliating feeling of being totally dependent, they are given some compensation for their services. Nearly forty per cent. of the patients are on the payroll of the institution, drawing from ten to forty dollars a month.

In addition to regular employment various forms of recreation and amusement are afforded. Many of the patients play baseball and tennis. Several are musically inclined, and have organized a band. Others have dramatic ability, and frequently present plays. Moving pictures are shown twice a week, and occasionally the patients provide for a third show through a collection taken among themselves. Once in a while students from the Louisiana State University, twenty-five miles away, render programs of various kinds before the patients. An auditorium with a seating capacity of 500, with well-arranged stage and dressing rooms, is now proposed. When it is erected regular road shows may be brought in from time to time. A small building has been set aside for use as a club house, and is equipped with a pool table, a victrola, a piano player and a library. It also contains a canteen, stocked from private funds donated from various sources. The profits from the sales of the canteen go towards increasing its stock and in purchasing various articles used for general entertainment purposes. A well-equipped radio outfit keeps the colony in touch with the outside world. The two sexes are allowed to mingle freely in all these social activities and at meal times, and they are encouraged to arrange for affairs of their own. Costume parties and the like are of frequent occurrence, and there is usually great rivalry among the patients to see who will make the best appearance on such an occasion. The effect of these various social features upon the physical and mental status of the patients has been very gratifying and, in some instances, marvelous.

There is no attempt to keep the patients under guard. They are put upon their honor to remain within bounds, and only occasionally do any of them run off. Practically every one realizes that his only hope of relief lies in a strict observance of the rules and regulations of the institution. In nearly all instances the absconders return of their own accord.

The staff in charge consists of the director, four physicians, one dentist and eleven graduate nurses,

all of whom give their full time to the work of the institution, and in addition four consulting specialists, who advise the physicians from time to time regarding certain cases under special observation.

Great difficulty was had at first in getting competent nurses, but in 1896, nearly two years after the institution had been founded by the state of Louisiana, the Sisters of Charity of St. Vincent de Paul volunteered for the service, and have been in charge of the work ever since. The circumstances under which the sisters began their work were most trying indeed. They had to renovate the old plantation mansion in which they were quartered and make it inhabitable. Among other things, they had to exterminate the snakes that had been harboring in it for years. They also found the lepers housed in old dilapidated slave cabins of ante-bellum days. But they remained heroically at their posts of duty, and have had the satisfaction of seeing the situation gradually change until it is now nearly ideal. Some of the sisters served for twenty years continuously before retiring.

Still greater difficulty was had in procuring the services of a dentist, because of the very close contact he would be compelled to have with the patients, but as nearly all lepers are seriously troubled with their teeth, especially with pyorrhea, the search was kept up until a competent dental surgeon was found who would be willing to undertake the work.

The director, Dr. O. E. Denney, is one of the acknowledged living authorities on leprosy. He had charge for four years of the largest leper colony in the world, the one at Culion in the Philippine Islands, where over 5000 patients are being taken care of, and he has written extensively upon his observations while there. He specialized in tropical diseases while a student at the medical school of the University of Pennsylvania, and went to the Philippine Islands to pursue his investigations of the subject. On his return home he was made director of the leprosarium at Carville when the United States government took it over in 1921.

The two resident chaplains, one a Catholic and the other a Protestant, are virtually members of the staff. They are as devoted to the religious welfare of the patients as the doctors and the nurses are to their physical well-being. The Catholic chapel has been in use ever since 1907, and at present a very commodious Protestant chapel is being erected.

There are two distinct types of leprosy, the skin or nodular, and the nerve or macular. In the first type, nodules or small lumps from one or two mm. to thirty cm. in diameter appear under the surface of the skin on any part of the body except the hairy scalp. They look like marbles of varied sizes under the skin, and give the victim a most horrible appearance in the face, producing in most cases what is known as the "leonine face." Nodules may appear in any tissue or organ of the body except the brain tissue. The suffering in this type is sometimes very intense, but that is not often the case.

In the second type, the disease manifests itself at first in macules or spots on the skin, ranging in size from one-half cm. in diameter to a patch covering the entire surface of the back. In the early stages, there is a great deal of inflammation in the affected parts, and there is usually considerable pain. As the disease progresses the nerve trunks become involved, and all sense of touch and heat is lost in the affected parts. There also occurs loss of function in certain members of the body. For example, all use of the fingers is lost and through contraction they are drawn into what is known as the "claw hand." Moreover, the bone and flesh of the hands and feet begin to be absorbed and gradually they disappear. The finger nails, however, are not attacked, and remain in position on the stubs of the fingers. If the fingers are completely absorbed, then the nails become attached to the end of the palm of the hand. Dr. Denney tells of one extreme case that came under his observation in the Philippines, where, after the entire hand had been absorbed, the finger nails were found attached to the end of the forearm. Because of the loss of feeling in the affected parts, amputation of the members, when that becomes necessary, is generally accomplished without the use of any anesthetics. There is no dropping off of fingers or hands or feet in leprosy, as is commonly believed. These members are often amputated because of some infection, or they become absorbed, and in either case give the appearance of having dropped off.

Men are much more susceptible to the disease of leprosy than women, the proportion being generally two or three to one. In the leprosarium at Carville there are 135 men and 50 women, which is about the usual ratio. The disease generally appears in individuals between the ages of eighteen and thirty, but some children develop symptoms under one year of age, and some adults do not show any signs of the disease until past eighty. At Carville there are five children with the disease, ranging in age from four to fifteen years.

The medical treatment given lepers consists of doses of crude chaulmoogra oil, varying from five to one hundred drops, taken in capsules at meal time three times a day, or of hypodermic injections of a refined product of this oil. Better results are obtained from the use of the crude oil, but many patients are nauseated from taking it in this form and have to submit to the painful process of hypodermic injections. Contrary to popular notions, chaulmoogra oil is not a new remedy at all, but a very old one, having been used at least a thousand years. It is derived from the seed of a certain kind of oriental plant called the *Taraktogenes Kurzii* King tree. It is significant that with all the advancement of science, and the great amount of study that has been given to leprosy, no better remedy has been found than that which was used in the days of Charlemagne, if not earlier. Most lepers improve under the chaulmoogra oil treatment, some to the extent of being apparently cured.

But there is no certainty of a cure. The most that can be said in those cases that seem to be cured is that the disease has been arrested in its development, and that the symptoms have disappeared. Patients are not discharged from Carville nowadays until after three years of freedom from all symptoms. Those that are allowed to go away are required to report to health officers in their communities every six months for an additional three years for examination, and if within that time symptoms recur, they must return to the leprosarium. Several of the patients who were released when the leprosarium was a state institution have returned, but many have never shown any signs of the disease as yet, and are still at large. Because of these cases of arrested development, many of the patients at Carville, especially the younger ones, entertain high hopes of some day being sent away as apparently cured.

Death seldom occurs from leprosy *per se*, especially where the patient is under the chaulmoogra oil treatment. Ordinarily it is occasioned by some other infection which, in the weakened condition of the patient's system, may easily take place. Those who have lost the sense of touch and heat are frequently seriously injured before they are made aware of the fact and the injury they sustain frequently brings death. At Carville there are several patients who have been in the institution ever since it was founded in 1894, and are approaching old age.

The one great enigma in leprosy today is the manner in which it is transmitted from one person to another. The germ has been isolated, and is as familiar to specialists as the bacilli in other diseases. But theory after theory as to how inoculation occurs has been proposed only to be disproved by subsequent investigations. There is no doubt but that the disease is acquired through contact, but most generally, if not invariably, it is acquired only through prolonged contact. But many persons who have been in constant association with lepers for years never contract the disease. Not a single person connected with the leprosarium at Carville during its thirty years of existence has ever taken the disease. This may be explained by the extreme care and scientific precaution that the nurses and other attendants take against becoming infected. But there are instances of husband and wife living together for years, with only one of them having the disease. What conditions, other than prolonged contact, effect the transmission of the germ are as yet unknown. When they are discovered, leprosy will be brought under control the same as any other contagious disease. Until that time comes, isolation of all cases is the only method to pursue.

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# A History Field Trip and Courses for Credit

BY PROFESSOR R. E. SWINDLER, BALL TEACHERS' COLLEGE, MUNCIE, INDIANA

Indiana State Normal School, Eastern Division, Muncie, recently conducted a history field trip in connection with which credit in the Normal School was given the students participating. Geography and geology field trips from the institution had previously been made, but the courses under the direction of the writer were the first field courses ever given under the auspices of the history department.

It was recognized in planning the trip and the courses offered that there were a number of difficulties to be encountered and solved, if the approved standards for credit in the history department were to be met. And it was also recognized that the problem in the very nature of the case would be quite different from that of geography field trips. Consequently, an entirely new set of conditions had to be anticipated. But we had the hearty co-operation of President L. N. Hines and valuable suggestions from Prof. Breeze, conductor of the geography and geology trips.

Among the chief problems to be encountered were (1) the courses to be offered; (2) the number and standing of students to be secured or allowed to go; (3) securing a sufficient traveling library, and, in addition, library facilities along the way; (4) the manner of conducting the courses that would be most suitable and profitable in such an enterprise; (5) places for conducting lectures, recitations, giving reports, etc.; (6) the itinerary and time to be consumed in travel; and, finally, (7) the character and amount of notebook work to be required. The following plan was used:

## I. THE COURSES OFFERED

After conferences for several weeks with eligible applicants, it was decided to offer two courses; namely, *The Colonial and Revolutionary War Era* and *Contemporary American History*. This decision was based upon the percentage of history majors requiring these courses for graduation, the maturity of the students, their teaching experience, the availability of the courses for history field work, and other considerations too numerous to mention in this brief statement, but all affecting the character and success of the experiment.

## II. NUMBER OF STUDENTS TO BE INCLUDED

Here the difficulty was not in securing enough to fill out the number necessary to make and finance the trip, but in limiting the number who wished to go. The maximum finally set was *thirty-six*, and thirty-five students actually met the conditions and went. A minimum of *twenty* had been set as the number necessary to justify the full-time employment of one faculty member in this work. A co-operative plan of study, manual work, and recitation was worked out by the instructor, in which thirty-five could be handled about as efficiently and expeditiously as could the minimum number, twenty

All but a few of the students had junior or senior standing in the institution before they started—a situation much to be desired, and which added materially to the success of the undertaking.

## III. LIBRARY AND READING FACILITIES

For a traveling library, fifteen or twenty of the most suitable works from the Normal library, an equal number from the private library of the instructor, a textbook for each student (a number of different texts), and fifty or sixty supplementary parallel texts and references from the private libraries of the more advanced students, with several purchases for the occasion, were taken along, making a total of some *one hundred and twenty-five* volumes continually available for study. In addition to these, the libraries of several places along the way were resorted to, the most important being the Library of Congress, Washington, D. C., and special publications and source material along the way were used. Also, constant use was made of magazines in the libraries, with here and there one or more purchased at the news stands en route, for special reports and topics. In fact, magazines and newspapers furnished the chief reading material for the course in Contemporary American History while on the road and in the cities. Various historical societies and others were very generous in supplying local material, at some places, free; at others, at a nominal cost. While reference material was somewhat restricted, that secured was directly applicable, and very little time was lost in hunting it out.

One of the party was selected as librarian, and took charge of the checking out and in of the books in much the same manner as in the regular library system.

## IV. MANNER OF CONDUCTING THE COURSES

For the course in early American history an outline and bibliography were prepared in advance of the trip, as well as maps covering the itinerary and points of interest to be visited, the maps being filled out quite in detail. The journey did not begin immediately upon the beginning of the term, but two hours each day, for the first week of the term, were given to covering briefly the material necessary as a basis for the work to be done on the trip. Beginning with the election of 1920 and the first of the Harding Administration, the same thing was done in the Course in Contemporary American History, proceeding chronologically, until, on the day of departure, President Harding's trip to Alaska was taken up. Thereafter the study and reports were by committees and topics exclusively. Of course, not all places could be visited in the order in which events happened in our early history. With a loose-leaf notebook arrangement, however, space was left for filling in general and local details, or transcribing notes in permanent form, with the review of some past event, when

finally arriving at the spot involved in previous study. In most cases, special assignments had been made for these reports several days in advance, and these were given when the party arrived at the points involved in the study. It is needless to say that the most interesting and inspiring recitations were held on spots sacred in American history.

The arrangement of the course in Contemporary American History for a while presented the greatest difficulty of all to the instructor. Some days before the beginning of the term, however, he decided to divide the class up into committees, of from three to five persons each. The majority of the members were on two committees, which fact enlarged their field of special reading and reports. There were committees on twelve distinct topics of major interest in Contemporary American History. On the average, two to three reports were given by each student, and the reports averaged about ten minutes in length. On the whole, these reports were very satisfactory, for the students had previously had on the way something live and vital, something really interesting, to read or observe and take notes upon preparatory to recitation. And they were eager to tell what they knew.

#### V AND VI. TIME AND PLACE ELEMENTS

As stated above, two weeks' work was done in each class before the trip began. By returning a couple of days before the term at the Normal closed, the class was able to do the major part of another week's work in residence, since they had two-hour recitations in each subject. The trip began on July 26th and the party returned on August 21st. It was thus a combination of residence and field work.

I shall note briefly the progress on the way. Leaving Muncie early July 26th, we had our noon luncheon and first field recitation at the fair grounds at Greenville, Ohio, famous for the Greenville treaty of 1795 with the Indians. We cooked and ate in the dining-room and held our recitation there, with the students taking their notes on the dining tables. Here we learned that we could cook, eat our meals, dispose of the dishes, and *hold recitation a good part of the time* these things were being done. The party was divided into "service squads," and they, each in turn, listened while the recitation was going on, or had some one take notes for them when they could not give attention, which was relatively rare, since we seldom began recitation until after we had begun eating. While on the longest stretches of travel we prepared two meals per day in camp, but while we were in the large cities we took all our meals at hotels or restaurants. A little less than half the time was spent in the cities, a considerable portion being at historical sites apart from such cities. The long summer days gave ample time for the meals in camp and the necessary traveling.

Passing through Dayton, we came to Columbus, Ohio, about 9.30 the second morning, where we visited the State House, the State University grounds, and the magnificent new stadium. We continued through Zanesville to Wheeling, W. Va., which we reached

about 10 o'clock A. M. of the third day. Here we got our first travelers' checks cashed, went to the city library for an hour and a half, held two brief recitations in the assembly room of the city Y. M. C. A., and prepared for ourselves a late lunch in the "Y" kitchen and dining-room. We were certainly made "at home" at this Y. M. C. A. That night we spent at Washington, Pa., and at 8.00 o'clock in the morning went around to visit Washington and Jefferson University. Here we spent two and a half hours, working part of the time in the university library. It was an inspiring sight to see a school of higher learning founded in 1793, at which so many men distinguished in our early national history studied or graduated, and to ponder their features from the venerable portraits that hung on the walls. That of James G. Blaine, however, seemed most impressive of all.

The next day we passed through Uniontown, where we had our noon luncheon. We halted early in the afternoon at Braddock's grave, nine miles out, where the students heard a lecture on the French and Indian war and its larger implications. They were prepared for this in their previous study, and they paid rapt attention; it seemed a sacred spot. It was with eagerness they continued their way along "Braddock's Trail," past the spot of old Fort Necessity, and on toward Maryland and Washington, D. C. That night was spent at Addison, Pa. Making Cumberland, Md., the following morning, we pressed on to Sharpsburg and viewed the battlefields of South Mountain and Antietam, where some excellent photographs were taken by several of the party.

In the early afternoon of the sixth day we reached Washington, a full day behind our schedule. But we hired an excellent guide for the remaining days we spent there, saw the objects and buildings of most historical interest to us, called on President Coolidge, used the Library of Congress for three extended periods of study, and held the most interesting, and certainly the most novel, of all our recitations on the steps at the foot of General Sherman's statue, by the White House grounds, opposite the Oxford Hotel.

On Monday noon, after having spent the forenoon at Mount Vernon, we departed for Richmond, Va., via Fredericksburg, where a lecture was given. The next three days were spent at Richmond, Jamestown, Yorktown, and Williamsburg, with one-third the party going on down to Norfolk, Hampton, and Fortress Monroe, and going through Hampton Institute. The remainder saw further historical sights about Williamsburg. All felt that their four days in Virginia, the "Cradle of the Republic," were well spent. Jamestown was very impressive. The earthworks, the old graves, the markings, the old church rebuilt, the statues and monument, all made John Smith, Pocahontas, Governor Berkeley, and others seem real as life. Some said the most sacred spot to them was there; to others, it was Mount Vernon.

Returning via Washington, D. C., we made a visit to Annapolis, saw the Naval Academy, the old State House, and stood on the spot where Washington sur-

rendered his commission to the Continental Congress, and where the Annapolis Convention was held in 1786, that led to the Constitutional Convention that convened at Philadelphia the next spring. Our journey then lay through Baltimore, on into Pennsylvania, to Chadd's Ford, or Brandywine creek, where we spent considerable time and had a lecture on the opening years of the Revolutionary war, and particularly on the Philadelphia campaign, of which this defeat and Germantown were the culmination. Next we came to Valley Forge, where a report of considerable length was prepared on Washington's winter there. That night and the following day were spent in Philadelphia, where both boys and girls were housed and fed by the Christian Associations, the men at the Central Y. M. C. A. and the girls at the Y. W. C. A. Franklin's grave, Independence Hall, with the Liberty Bell, and other spots of historical interest were visited.

The next two or three days were spent in New Jersey—Trenton, Princeton, Morristown, etc. Then, after making Newark and Jersey City, the party camped at the Palisades' tourist camp on the Hudson, near Dyckman's ferry, took a hotel on the Jersey side, and spent the next three days in New York City and a trip up the Hudson on the "Washington Irving," of the Hudson River Day Line, a transport ship in the World War. On this voyage Newburg and West Point were visited, and other Revolutionary war lectures were given, preparatory to a study of the period of the Articles of Confederation. Recitations were also held, and reports given, in the dining-room of the hotel near Dyckman's ferry. The dining-room for the evening was turned over to our party. From this point it was a wonderful view up and down the Hudson, either day or night.

The story of the return trip in most respects would be simply a repetition of that thus far given, hence we omit the details. The journey lay through Bethlehem, Pa., the great steel town of Schwab; Hershey, Pa., famous for its chocolates; Harrisburg, Pa., with its magnificent Capitol, the most beautiful and artistic State House visited anywhere on the trip; Gettysburg, where the battlefield and plan of battle were studied in detail; Pittsburgh, where the boys went through one of the largest steel mills and saw the different processes, from ore to finished product, and the girls went through the Carnegie Museum; Canton, Ohio, with a visit to the gigantic tomb of McKinley; Marion, Ohio, home of President Harding; Fort Recovery, Ohio, scene of St. Clair's defeat by the Indians in 1791, with its monument to that event (and also the record of General Wayne's victory over these Indians at the battle of Fallen Timbers); Portland, Indiana, and home to Muncie.

#### VII. NOTEBOOKS, ETC.

Both students and instructor felt that more was gotten from the trip than could have been gained from class study in residence alone at the Normal;

also, that this experience would make broader, better teachers. It was a different thing, of course, from the traditional course and methods. The reading and the work of the notebooks were well directed, a rather extensive notebook was made, with many valuable photographs, pictures, descriptions, and reports; and not an hour was spent in idleness or foolishness. The notebooks were finished up before the term closed, except that a few of the films had not been developed for some of the students. Most of them had.

#### CONCLUSION

Particularly in the course in Contemporary American History the method was truly the "socialized recitation." It would have been impossible for so much work to have been done without the full participation in its management and responsibility by the chairmen and members of the committees themselves. It was the most democratic educational enterprise the writer ever engaged in.

In the large, everything was planned and done for a purpose. Special talent and adaptabilities were volunteered and utilized. The work soon became well organized. The students worked on an average until 11 P. M., since they were often short on time for text study and notebook work during the day. No one, however, complained of this. Their only complaint was that they were so limited in time; and in travel they were remarkably faithful to schedule. Co-operation of the class with the instructor was hearty and spontaneous, as well as according to plan. It would have been impossible to accomplish the routine of the work if it had not been for the aid of the two assistants and the voluntary help of the students. The company was an example of a freely functioning, practically working democracy, with the opportunities for mutual service and benefit taken advantage of without reserve and with hearty good will.

That the whole undertaking was not without its faults is not to be denied. But we have learned by experience and future trips could easily remedy the most unsatisfactory features. The majority of the students think so well of the work that they are anxious to go on another trip and bear the expenses incident thereto. And it is the most advanced students, most of them experienced teachers and administrators in school work, who are most enthusiastic about it. We feel that this conviction on their part is its best justification and speaks for itself. At times there were inconveniences and hardships to be borne; nevertheless, the pleasures and many interesting experiences of the party and individuals were ample recompense.

The trip was by auto-bus, part of the boys camping out, but all the girls taking hotels at night. Not an untoward incident occurred from first to last. There were forty in the party, including the students, the three bus drivers, and Mr. and Mrs. Swindler.



# One Solution of the State History Problem

BY PROFESSOR ASA EARL MARTIN, PENNSYLVANIA STATE COLLEGE

In spite of lengthy and learned discussions, the problem of how satisfactorily to teach state and national history is far from being solved. For a number of years, criticisms, some of which are well founded, of the usual courses in American history in our secondary schools have been increasing, chiefly because of the undue emphasis frequently placed on dates and isolated facts, the chronological method of presentation, and the failure of textbook writers and of teachers to co-ordinate national, state, and local history. In many instances there is not only lack of interest in the subject on the part of the students, but, in general, a low degree of efficiency in the course. Along with this growing dissatisfaction with the ordinary American history course, there has arisen a widespread demand for the requirement of state history, either in the grades or in the high schools. Partly because of unsatisfactory results in the majority of standard courses, and partly because of the fact that the present overcrowded curricula of both the upper grades and the high schools will not admit of additional courses, legal requirement of state history has resulted frequently in the relegating of United States history to the list of elective courses.

There is, nevertheless, a strong feeling that both state and national history should be required of all graduates of high schools. The problem of how to make this possible is complicated not only by the question of introducing an additional required course, but also by the difficulty of dividing state and national history into separate subjects. There is bound to be considerable duplication and overemphasis in the two courses, and the subject of state history is left necessarily fragmentary and incomplete. It must be admitted, however, that this state of affairs is due in part to the lack of satisfactory textbooks and library facilities to enable the teacher and the student to study in their true relationships both national and state history.

In a number of states, where courses have been established recently, with textbooks especially prepared to meet this situation, the results in every case have shown a marked degree of success. It is the purpose of this article to describe somewhat in detail an attempted solution of this problem on the part of the writer of this article and Professor H. H. Shenk, of Lebanon Valley College, for the 30,000 pupils enrolled in the American history courses in the state of Pennsylvania. They have prepared a book, designed as a supplementary text, to be used in connection with any standard high school history of the United States for the purpose of co-ordinating the history of Pennsylvania with that of the country as a whole. Under the title, "Pennsylvania History Told by Contemporaries," a single volume of about seven hundred pages has been compiled of two hundred and fifty-nine carefully selected sources, show-

ing Pennsylvania's relation to important national events. A special effort has been made to select these sources not only to illustrate the part Pennsylvania played in all outstanding national events, but also to emphasize the deeds and the opinions of individual Pennsylvanians. Preceding each selection has been placed a brief introductory paragraph, explaining the significance of the source quoted. The material has been grouped under the following headings:

## PART I

- I. The Founding of Pennsylvania.
- II. The Native Pennsylvanians.
- III. Resistance to Great Britain.
- IV. The Establishment of the Federal Government.
- V. The Anti-Slavery Movement.
- VI. The Civil War.
- VII. Foreign Wars.
- VIII. Political Development.

## PART II

- IX. Social Life.
- X. Education.
- XI. Economic Development:
  - (a) Agriculture.
  - (b) Manufacturing and Commerce.
- XII. Labor Conditions.
- XIII. Transportation and Internal Improvements.
- XIV. Finance and Banking.
- XV. Economic, Political, and Social Tendencies.

The value of the book as a supplementary text may be seen by examining some of the topics presented in the first chapter, "The Founding of Pennsylvania," such as "The Authorization of a Swedish Colony (1624)," "The Dutch Conquest of New Sweden (1655)," "The English Conquest of the Delaware (1664)," "The Royal Proclamation Announcing the Granting of the Charter to William Penn (1681)," "The Origin of the Name Pennsylvania (1681)," "Penn's Public Announcement Concerning Settlement in His Province (1681)," "The Letter of William Penn to the Inhabitants of Pennsylvania (1681)," "William Penn's Commission to William Markham as Deputy Governor (1681)," together with selections on the religious and racial composition of the population. Thus, when a class is studying the settlement of the English colonies in continental America in a general history of the United States, the question of Pennsylvania's establishment and relationships can be interestingly brought out by text assignments in the source book.

As a more concrete example, take the case of a pupil, studying in his history of the United States the events leading up to and the final passage of the Coercive Acts by the English government. By reference to his source book, he will find that immediately upon the receipt of this news from Boston a meeting was held in Philadelphia of delegates from all the

counties in the province, who adopted a series of resolutions condemning the English government for the passage of the Coercive Acts, suggesting the calling of a congress of delegates from all the colonies, and pledging the support of Pennsylvania to Massachusetts and the other colonies in enforcing non-intercourse agreements and other common measures for the defense of their rights and liberties.

The general plan of organization of material throughout the book is illustrated in Chapter III, "Resistance to Great Britain," in which the following selections are found: "William Penn's Dissatisfaction With His Provincial Assembly (1710)," "The Provincial Assembly vs. the Provincial Governor (1755 and 1757)," "The Prohibition of Colonial Paper Money (1764)," "Non-Importation and Opposition to the Stamp Act (1765)," "The King's Rejection of the Assembly's Petition for a Change of the Government from Proprietary to Royal (1765)," "The Examination of Benjamin Franklin Relative to the Repeal of the Stamp Act (1766)," "Letters from a Farmer in Pennsylvania Concerning the Townshend Acts (1768)," "The Tea Riot in Philadelphia (1773)," "The Coercive Acts and the Closing of the Port of Boston (1774)," "Instances of Pennsylvania's War Activities (1775-1777)," "Preparation for the Defense of Philadelphia (1776)," "An At-

tempt to Stabilize Continental Currency in Pennsylvania (1776)," "Extracts from a Valley Forge Diary (1777-1778)," "Contemporary Accounts of Valley Forge (1778)," "The Recruiting of Soldiers for the Revolutionary Army (1778)," "General Anthony Wayne and the Pennsylvania Soldiers at Stony Point (1779)," "The Parliamentary Examination of Joseph Galloway, A Pennsylvania Loyalist (1779)," "The Conclusion of the Peace Negotiations Ending the Revolutionary War (1783)."

Thus, it is evident that by the joint use of a general American history and "Pennsylvania History Told by Contemporaries," the leading events in state and national history can be co-ordinated and studied more effectively from the points of view of both American and Pennsylvania history. Source books, with the same general object in view, can be easily compiled for any state in the Union. While it is not claimed that it will prove a final solution of the problem, it is believed that it does offer distinct advantages over the system now in use in most of our states. Not only will it result in a better co-ordination of state and United States history, but it will stimulate interest in the study of history on the part of the pupil, provoke class discussion, and furnish many topics for problem study.

## COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY IN THE CITY OF NEW YORK

SUMMER SESSION, JULY 6 TO AUGUST 14, 1925

### COURSES IN THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

<b>Economic Principles and Problems</b> Business Cycles (A comparative study of the economic organization of England, India, Argentina, Germany, and Japan by specialists of these countries)	<b>ECONOMICS</b> Labor Problems Economic Theory Economic Organization of Foreign Countries Seminar	The Economics of Agriculture The Organization of Banking
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<b>GOVERNMENT AND PUBLIC LAW</b> American Political Organizations and Governmental Problems Constitutional Law of U. S. The Crusades Medieval Civilization Political and Cultural History of Ancient Greece Foundations of Modern Europe Industrial Revolution and its Results Nationalism and Imperialism in the XIX and XX Centuries	<b>GOVERNMENT AND PUBLIC LAW</b> International Law <b>HISTORY</b> Ancient History Ancient Orient The Hebrews Development of Europe from XVI Century to French Revolution	Problems of Local Government Local Politics American History Medieval Industry and Commerce Mediterranean World under Roman Control Modern Contemporary European History History of Modern England 1874-1924
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British Commonwealth of Nations  
 Social, Economic History of U. S. since the Civil War  
 History of U. S. 1492-1783; 1789-1876; 1815-1841; 1803-1867; Survey of U. S. History  
 Hispanic America, its Relations with the U. S.

A series of public lectures will be given during the Summer Session by the entire staff of the Department of History

<b>SOCIOLOGY</b> Introduction to Sociology Seminar: Psychology of Association and Society	<b>SOCIOLOGY</b> Approaches to the Study of Society	Principles of Sociology Seminar: Social Progress and Social Betterment
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<b>STATISTICS</b> Principles and Methods	<b>STATISTICS</b> Vital Statistics and Health Administration	Advanced Statistics
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For Announcement of Summer Session, 1925, Address the  
**SECRETARY OF COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK CITY**

# A Survey of the Social Studies in New England—Rhode Island

BY JOSEPH M. MURPHY, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

The State of Rhode Island has no course of study for the social studies. Each school arranges its program as it may see fit, and, in general, the same practices which govern the selection of studies throughout the other New England states are followed in this case. "The Rhode Island laws require the teaching of Rhode Island history in the seventh and eighth elementary grades."<sup>1</sup> Beyond this requirement the schools are free to select or reject from the whole field of the social sciences, and, in one large school, the absence of any restrictions has permitted the introduction of courses in the history of Latin America and of the Far East.

There are twenty-four high schools listed by the state department, and of that number eleven, or 45 per cent., replied to the questionnaire. Among those reporting were three of the largest in the state, so that a fairly representative group for comparison was secured. Fifty-one teachers were reported, whose distribution is as follows:

No. of different teachers	51	100%
No. of full-time teachers	18	35%
No. of part-time teachers	28	54%
No. not stating time	5	9%

The time devoted to the teaching of the social studies by the part-time teacher is indicated by the following table. Of this group, more than half devote the greater part of their school day to some phase of history. In this respect, Rhode Island fares slightly better than some of her neighbors:

Teaching 1/3 the school day	1
Teaching 2/4 the school day	1
Teaching 3/4 the school day	1
Teaching 1/5 the school day	2
Teaching 2/5 the school day	1
Teaching 3/5 the school day	4
Teaching 4/5 the school day	6
Teaching 1/6 the school day	3
Teaching 2/6 the school day	1
Teaching 5/6 the school day	1
Teaching 4/7 the school day	2
Teaching 5/7 the school day	2

## FRESHMAN OR NINTH-GRADE COURSES

Ancient History and Civics for the first year of the high school course is the rule among the schools of New England, and Rhode Island follows the established order. Samples of all kinds of history are found in each of the four years, but the two mentioned are offered either as stated or in connection with another field in the high school students' introduction to the social sciences:

Courses	Number of schools offering course	Per cent.
Ancient	3	27
Ancient and Medieval	1	9
Civics	2	18
Community Civics	2	18
Early European	1	9
European	1	9
General	1	9
World	1	9

The texts used correspond to the courses and are grouped as follows:

Author	Number of schools using text	Per cent.
Elson	1	9
Guitteau	1	9
Hill	1	9
Hughes	1	9
Myers	2	18
Robinson and Breasted	2	18
Webster	1	9
West	2	18

## THE SOPHOMORE YEAR

The second year of the high school course leans quite heavily upon the history of Europe. Five of the seven courses listed relate to that part of the world, and the two variations are taught in the same school, together with Modern History. They may be considered as an offering to some group for a particular purpose, which will satisfy their particular need, while the Modern History is studied by the majority of the students:

Courses	Number of schools offering course	Per cent.
Community Civics	1	9
Early European	1	9
English	2	18
European	3	27
Medieval and Modern	1	9
Modern European	2	18
Rhode Island History	1	9

Author	Number of schools using text	Per cent.
Cheyney	1	9
Hayes and Moon	2	18
Hill	1	9
Miner	1	9
Montgomery	1	9
Myers	1	9
Robinson and Beard	3	27
Robinson and Breasted	1	9
Webster	2	18

## THE JUNIOR COURSE

The third year of the high school course of study is always approached with misgivings. Somewhere in the curriculum must appear Ancient History, and the first year seems logical for that. European is also in the general order of things, and so follows the first, even though quite a gap appears in some courses between the death of Charlemagne and the accession of Louis XIV, for many of our modern history texts begin with the reign of the latter. We always desire that our students leave high school well versed in the history of their country, and so we plan to spend the senior year with American History and Government, or Civics, as it may be called. Into the third year, then, go all the other courses which the needs of the school or the individual may demand. Very frequently the appearance of a course in American History in this year means that some group is preparing for a higher institution and wishes



to leave its final year in the high school free for the more technical subjects, or those which the colleges require to be taken immediately preceding the entrance of the student into their field. So this year becomes place for the review, for the special requirements, and for experimentation. It is not at all an unwise procedure to leave this gap in the continuity of the courses, for it provides a place for an emergency class, a situation not unlikely to occur either in the school curriculum or in the plans of the individual student:

<i>Courses</i>	<i>Number of schools offering course</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>
American History .....	1	9
Ancient .....	2	18
English .....	2	18
Far East .....	1	9
Latin-American .....	1	9
Medieval and Modern .....	2	18
Modern .....	1	9
Modern European .....	2	18
Review Ancient .....	1	9
United States .....	2	18

<i>Author</i>	<i>Number of schools using text</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>
Botsford .....	1	9
Cheyney .....	2	18
Harding .....	1	9
Muzzey .....	3	27
Myers .....	1	9
Robinson .....	1	9
Robinson and Beard .....	2	18
Robinson and Breasted .....	1	9
Webster .....	2	18
West .....	2	18

#### SENIOR OR TWELFTH GRADE

The last year of the course is devoted almost exclusively to the study of American History. When variations occur it is only in the field of civics or government and social problems. One school reported work in "problems" and that in connection with advanced civics. This phase of the social studies does not seem to have secured a foothold in Rhode Island, for of all the schools reporting it is mentioned once:

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In all, 105 courses offered in this Session.

Many recreational features.

<i>Courses</i>	<i>Number of schools offering course</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>
Advanced Civics and Social Problems .....	1	9
American History .....	1	9
American and Civics .....	3	27
Civics and Social Science .....	1	9
United States and Civics .....	4	36

<i>Author</i>	<i>Number of schools using text</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>
Boynton .....	1	9
Fite .....	1	9
Forman .....	4	36
Garner .....	1	9
Guitteau .....	1	9
Howe .....	1	9
Larned .....	1	9
Magruder .....	1	9
Munro and Ozanne .....	2	18
Muzzey .....	5	45
Woodburn and Moran .....	1	9

Eight of the ten courses listed in the first table refer to American History, though they are stated under three distinct headings. In so far as possible, all courses were listed in exactly the same manner as they were returned on the questionnaire. There is variation among the texts, but the majority seem to favor one in particular. It was more difficult to choose from among the texts in government and civics.

#### SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

<i>Periodicals</i>	<i>Schools reporting use</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>
American Civic .....	1	9
Current Events .....	1	9
Independent .....	1	9
Literary Digest .....	6	54
National Geographic .....	1	9
New York Times .....	1	9
Prov. Journal .....	1	9
OUTLOOK .....	4	36
<i>Miscellaneous</i>		
Clippings .....	1	9
Maps .....	2	18
Outline Maps .....	1	9
Pictures .....	1	9
Reference Books .....	1	9
Reference Library .....	2	18

The replies under this heading must be accepted with a reasonable allowance for unintentional deficiencies, as it is evident that what may be considered "supplementary" in one school may be an integral part of the work in another. The average history course refers to a wide field, and it is impossible to conceive of a year's work not calling upon all the available resources.

The leading course in the high schools of the State of Rhode Island is American or United States History, with Ancient History, European History, and Civics occupying important positions. This does not differ greatly from the prevailing tendencies. Each school offers at least these three histories, and adds Civics either to the first year of high school as an elementary subject, or to the senior year, where it is taught in connection with American History. Around this core may be built further additions, as the needs of the school, the community, or the individual are developed.

<sup>1</sup> Commissioner of Education.

<sup>2</sup> Percentages are stated in terms of the nearest whole number for convenience of compilation.

# One Year with a History Museum in a Small High School

BY RUSSELL COLBERT, HIGH SCHOOL, MONTGOMERY, INDIANA

Like many other teachers of the social studies I had, in years prior to 1924-1925, frequently brought into the classroom articles which illustrated local history. These articles were many and varied, such for example as: arrow heads, tomahawks, old rifles, letters, deeds, land patents, small articles of furniture, samples of handiwork, and clothing.

This plan proved helpful and the articles useful, often in unexpected ways. However, the articles were kept for only short periods, and in no particular order, as a consequence they were not available many times when they might have been of service to us.

I had given some thought to the project of organizing a small, working, historical museum for two or three years but, for several reasons, had not reached the point of action. Among other things, our school building was small, and we were always crowded. Frankly, however, it must be admitted that this should not altogether excuse me, because it would have been possible to have found space for a small museum had I desired it at the time. In the second place, I had always held to a vague idea that articles useful for a history museum might be obtained in California, with its romantic history; in Kansas, where the slavery struggle had been so bitter; or in New York, but surely not much was to be found in Southern Indiana. Again, might not the whole thing be a "fad" of some of our foolish "educators" at which real teachers would smile and our patrons laugh?

From these statements it can readily be seen that I was somewhat skeptical on the point myself.

Then things began to happen—our school building burned in the spring of 1923, and has been replaced by a splendid structure of which the people of the community are justly proud. We then had "space," I had gone far enough in my haphazard way to learn that Southern Indiana possessed a wealth of material for a local museum. During the summer of 1924, while at the Indiana State Normal School, it was my good fortune to work with Professor Bogardus in his class in methods. I found him an enthusiast on the museum idea, and as it happened (or perhaps it wasn't altogether by chance) he gave me some special topics along this line to investigate. I now felt satisfied from the professional standpoint and ready to attempt the matter in earnest.

I had learned to look only for articles of real value to the class,—not to begin purchasing material,—and to enlist the boys and girls in the cause. Mr. Bogardus had cautioned us to take the matter slowly, not to become discouraged or over-anxious, and to keep our plans well within the bounds of possibility. In all of this, in the light of my brief experience, he was exactly right.

Our new building was ready for occupation in October, 1924, and until that time I collected only

a few articles, chiefly as samples of what we needed, and explained the plan to members of my classes in General History and United States History. It seemed best not to begin the project with an excess of helpers, and time has demonstrated the wisdom of this course. We have some cases in our new building, and a part of this space has been devoted to our museum. In fact, some select historical references and our museum are in the same case, a plan which seems to work well in the beginning.

Articles began to come in as soon as we could care for them. They include: old deeds, letters written during the Civil War, candlestick holders, candle molds, a boot jack, old coins, flints, arrow heads, ear ornaments, tax receipts, newspapers, commissions, licenses, a Kentucky squirrel rifle which has quite a history, articles of handiwork, an old grease burner and other articles of interest. Altogether something like a hundred articles were selected and used. I say selected because that is literally true; we managed to get what we desired, and at the same time offend no one, so far as I know, by refusing material. Space is not available for mere curiosities, the material must have classroom value. Again it must be used if its presence is to be justified and, speaking from a limited experience, I may say that it will be used ten times, if it is available, where the teacher had planned to use it once.

A short account of a lesson we had on "Methods of Artificial Lighting" may illustrate some of the uses to which the museum has been put. The members of our class in United States History made a wick for the grease burner, melted tallow and filled it, arranging the wick so that it was ready to burn. We melted tallow and "made" candles with the candle mold as one recitation. Then we darkened the room and illustrated lighting with these materials as put over against the pine knot or torch, the oil lamp, and electricity. These exercises with appropriate explanations made a much more effective lesson than mere "talk" could have done.

A careful list was kept of the material for the museum as it came in, showing the name of the owner and of the article itself. The same information was written on a label which was, in turn, placed on or near the article. Owners of the materials, of course, understand that they may withdraw them at any time. This arrangement is, I think, necessary to obtain the best results.

One of the best things about our small museum is that it can be increased, and that its possibilities are almost unlimited. We have not been able to obtain all of the useful articles available in the community, but I feel, and the people who have helped me, see that we have started a project which will grow.

# The Garret: A Depository for Source Material in American History

BY JULIE KOCH, CLEVELAND HIGH SCHOOL, ST. LOUIS, MO.

An historical museum in the secondary school, especially in the junior high school, is admirable and much to be desired, but until boards of education have been won over to the idea of yielding space for glass cases—a situation possible and probable in the millennium at the present rate of increase in enrollment—and until janitors no longer object to one's "junk" in the corridors, a museum as advocated by Dr. Page, of the Northern Illinois State Normal College, must remain, perforce, a castle in Spain. While no claim is made that the following suggestion is, by any chance, a substitute for the museum, the writer believes that her classes in industrial history have secured a great deal of pleasure and much training from searching the family attic for documents, family papers, old books, etc. This is not a new idea—hundreds of teachers have used it and are doing so daily—but the motive for contributing the following extracts from some of our letters is to bring to the attention of the young teacher that a wealth of historical material for the middle west is lying idle in the garrets of some of our pioneers, and that this material may not be destroyed through lack of appreciation on the part of the owners and through ignorance. The children who have seen their comrades bring to class faded, torn letters, to which a bit of sealing wax still clings, with "Pony Despatch" scrawled across the address and the amount of postage due written in the upper left hand corner in lieu of stamps, crumbly bits of paper that have been used both for the letter and its answer, are not going to destroy ruthlessly any historical landmarks or source material, for keen is their spirit of reverence. The students referred to are, for the most part, from homes where libraries, magazines, and bookplates are not the ordinary luxuries, yet college students in paleography could not have been more aglow with curiosity than were these youngsters. They love every loadstar connected with the westward movement, and they know the function of the historical museum of their state.

The reading of a little book by Dana Prescott, of the Newark High School, was the open sesame. Not only is "A Day in a Colonial Home" a charming story, with every page illustrated, but an excellent appendix contains detailed instructions for making every article dear to the heart of the collector of antiques, from the sewing bird to the spinning wheel. The day following the reading of this little book somebody's great-grandmother's scrap-book appeared in class. Because of the advertisements pasted in, the owner told exactly what kinds of food had been eaten in the middle west, what the styles were, etc. Next came an exquisite piece of handmade linen, one hundred years old, which somebody's mother had

hemmed on the machine! Then, one day, from the rear piped a little voice: "I had an ancestor who was seven feet, six inches tall, and he weighed 1,000 pounds!" He was thus distinguished, as the "Century Dictionary" relates, but the reason for telling this bit of family gossip (our pedagogy is not on that plane) is that an inarticulate, timid girl was curious enough to search the family Bible, and having found a reference to the relative, went of her own accord to the public library and naively asked for a book "one looks up one's ancestors in." The following clippings from letters, bills, etc., contributed to the classroom discussion will make clear the variety of source material that may be put at the disposal of any class.

The excerpt below, written from Virginia in the summer of 1842, is the lamentation of a product of the westward movement who has gone to the Atlantic coast to visit her father's relatives:

STRONG HILL, August 23, 1842.

DEAR GIRLS:

. . . To give an account of the strange doings and sayings of the Virginians would baffle Boz for shurely. They are, I shall use the term "quete" or "kuteest" people I ever saw. The more I see of them the more I wish I had never seen one—but it will be as impossible for me to ever leave the state as it was for Moses to reach the promised land after God had laid his veto on it. So all I have to do is to fall into their costomes and manners and instead of saying set up a stocking or sock—"hang the stitches on the needles"—and a thousand other strange terms.

W. came over yesterday evening in company with two of his sisters to invite us to his wedding which is to take place to that Miss W—that Scott had him married to a year or so ago—instead of thirty thousand she only has ten thousand and as ugly as sin at that. The S's are all like Mrs. S—. They like to visit but want no company. . . . When one goes there they are invited in the "saloon" and there they sit until they are "salooned" into dinner. Then they are "salooned" back until they are "salooned" home which is the most delightful salooning of all. To spend one day there is doing sufficient penance for all the sins one can do in a month. There is nothing here to remind me of the happy days I have spent at Glen Spring and your letter home, but when the wind sighs mournfully through the thick forest of trees which have been suffered to grow around the yard it makes me feel so very sad, and yet it is a pleasant feeling because it takes me back to a spot the dearest on earth. I close my eyes and I am again sitting in the little back room with my pipe listen-

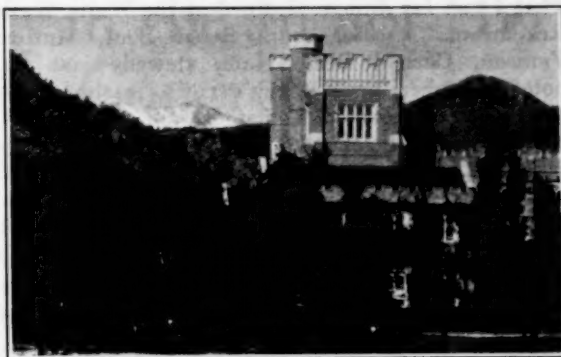


ing to the wind as it solemnly sings its requiem as if it were wailing for the dead—or back at Elm Spring, and many a burning tear courses itself down a cheek which seems to have been born for little else. But Jesus wept and well he might over a world of suffering and sorrow like ours.

The old folks are very kind to me—the Col. is a perfect curiosity—he keeps two white maids to wait on him. When he walks out they take off his shoes; as soon as he comes in and wash his feet, fix his armchair and prop his foot on a cushion to groan with the gout. The old lady says it is all pretense. They are very aristocratic, the old lady in particular. She likes to speak of her cousin Chief Justice Marshall and of—her grandfather of Scotland. As for myself I sit a silent listener not doubting but that my grandfather stole a piece of bread in the boggs of Ireland and fled to the U. States from Justice. . . . The old lady takes my silence for profound admiration of her big blood. . . . Stony Hill is a beautiful place. The house is very old-fashioned having been built a century back, high peaked roofs to all the out-houses. The furniture is of the oldest fashion having been in the house until a great deal of it is worm eaten. I wonder the house has stood so long for the sun never shines on it the shade is so great from the trees. . . . How do the T——s come on? They have "Riz" since they went to the west. They were of the lower class here. Old Bill and son, Mary and her children that were to live in magnificence! I have seen the place they left. To take a look at that and then Mary it makes one laugh. . . . You have no idea how very poor the people of this state are. You will be surprised when I tell you that white women of the poor class work in the corn fields at the rate of 12½ cents a day and can scarcely find employment at that. Fish and cornbread—and sometimes bread alone is all they have. . . . I have not had a pinch out of that snuffbox. The Colonel keeps it in his vest pocket. Give my love to Mr. R. and tell him if he wants a wife of any account to come to Virginia and take one.

As an index of the life and prices in the west during the gold rush after the Civil War, this letter, dated Helena City, Montana, March 24, 1866, was studied:

" . . . Five of us have wintered in one cabin, keeping Bachelors Hall. Last Sunday we had seven Ladies and Three Gents to spend the evening and take tea with us. Our cabin was filled to overflowing there being fifteen of us in all. As old aunt used to say, we did the best we could. We gave them quite a nice supper, it only cost forty one dollars and fifty five cents. It takes money in this country to entertain company but that is not much among many. I shall send you a photograph of I, and myself to show you what can be done in the Rocky Mountains. For fear



Arapahoe Peak and Glacier, and Tower of Macky Building

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you may think that I live poorly, I shall tell you what I had for dinner. I dined at the Walla Walla Restaurant. Oyster soup, Roast Beef, Mutton, Venison, Corned Beef, Ham, stewed meat and potatoes, green peas, corn, carrots, mashed potatoes, nice fresh butter, Tomatoes, and as Mrs. Hall would say, a delicious cup of tea; for desert sponge cake and wine sauce. I supped at the St. Louis Restaurant. Bill of Fare. Broiled Beef Steak, Mutton Chops, Ham, Venison Steak, Mackerel, Stewed Kidneys and potatoes, Hash Tripe, fried potatoes, Hot Rolls and Butter, Rice Cakes. Stewed Prunes and tea. Price one dollar and fifty cents each in gold dust. You can see from the photograph how I dress. I will tell you how clothing costs here. Here is a list of my working clothing and the price. Hat \$9.00. Shirt \$9.00. Undershirt \$4.50. Drawers \$5.00. Socks \$1.00. Pants \$15.00. Boots \$15.00. Buck Gloves \$5.00. These are what I wear every day. Of course, I could get the same articles cheaper, but of an inferior kind. The best material is the cheaper in the end."

High school students in industrial history have difficulty in understanding the effect of the westward movement on banking, and the financial problems of the Jacksonian régime, unless concrete facts be presented them; therefore, a bill such as the following lessens the difficulty considerably. The date is 1816; the place St. Louis County:

1/4 lb of tea	\$0.75
1/2 doz. tin cups	1.00
2 cuts of thread	.50
1 post coffee mill	2.25
10 1/2 yds. of Lindsey	10.50
4 1/2 lbs. of lead	.56 1/4
30 lbs. of lead	15.00
1 large pan	.87 1/2
2 pair socks	1.00
1 crooked comb	.50
1 black silk hdkf.	1.50
1 toylete glass	.75
1 sifter	2.50
1 pair cotton gloves	.75
2 7/8 yds. gray cloth	23.00
1 copper tea kettle	4.00

In 1820, a general merchandise store in St. Louis County charged the following prices:

Mch. 28—8 lbs of sugar at 25c.	
per pound	\$4.00
Apr. 3—4 lbs. of coffee at 50c.	
per pound	2.00
Apr. 18—50 lbs. of sugar at	
20c. per pound	10.00
May 3—1 pair of shoes for wife	2.00
Oct. 3—1/2 lb. of tea at \$3.50	1.75
In piece for 12 yds. domestic	
at 31 1/4c.	3.75
5 lbs. cotton chain at 75c.	3.75

In studying the opening of the gold mines in the west, we made use of such material as this:

DENVER CITY, August 8, 1859.

DEAR E:

. . . I will now tell you something about our trip. It was much more pleasant than I had expected from what I had heard about the plains. Some parts of them are beautiful and covered with flowers and prickly pears of all shapes and they put forth magnificent flowers. The buffalo were very plentiful; on the road we had one or two chases. I killed a very fine one on the Arkansas River. W. and I like travelling very well. I think he and I will be in early in the spring, but to return soon we can go into Leavenworth in about six days now by express. . . . I sent grandma a lump of gold that weighed ninety cents that I panned out myself. The mines are very rich in places; it has not been more than two months since they have been discovered. I have seen some large nuggets, the largest was forty-two dollars and a half. I have taken out over one dollar to the pan. Will and I and two other men took out of eight flour sacks of dust twenty dollars and eighty cents in about two hours work. You spoke of our living on beef, but I can say that we are living on meat that is much better than any beef you can get in the states. We have antelope here in abundance which is preferable to venison. Tell cousin that Audrain does not begin to be the place to live in that this is (for we can see pieces of money a rolling around as big as cart wheels). Our letters cost us a quarter to get them. We have just commenced business this morning and selling our Bourbon at two bits a drink.

. . . I am of the opinion that there is plenty of gold in the country, but most of the men are too lazy to dig it out of the ground. Many come out here expecting to pick it up out of the ground without any trouble; they are the ones who are going back with such discouraging reports.

In our collection are letters describing the journey westward, the accidents on the way, the fate of the people, the division of the church over slavery because "the leaders are not satisfied with what is termed conservative ground, but they say that slavery is ordained by God," bills dated 1789, land deeds, directions for using the early reaper, etc., etc. These extracts may not be what the historian would call a "find," yet there is not one that cannot be used in some way in a course in American history. Through these letters the youngsters have travelled with a pioneer through the Oregon valley, listened to her groan "Oh, God, it is cold here!" suffered with her as she stuck in the mud in front of her cabin; they have heard first hand of how the bears were met and fought, of how a Kentucky settler captured by the Indians was rescued by Boone's men. Is not this studying history "in the making," even though in an elementary way?

# The Teaching of History in the Junior High School—The Use of the Concrete: Time Charts, Maps, Pictures, Cartoons, Graphs.

BY DANIEL C. KNOWLTON, PH. D., LINCOLN SCHOOL TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

## RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF SUCH MEANS

How shall we acquaint children of junior high school age with these great concepts of time, place and change? They are concepts which are imperfectly understood by grown ups. How, then, can we make them comprehensible to children? Not by learning lists of dates or by memorizing time charts. Not by learning the names of great cities and locating them on the map. Not by learning the answers to a series of questions as to cause and effect. This is not implying that such energy, when expended in the classroom, is altogether wasted. Much of it, however, is misdirected. It must be accompanied at this stage of instruction by an appeal to the eye and a strong emotional stimulus. It must reckon more closely with the child himself who is depending so largely upon what he sees and feels for his impressions of the life about him.

This unreal world into which you have thrust him must be re-created and made real through objectifying it even to the point of resolving it into things which he can see, touch and handle, if need be. You must place him in contact with the things which his eye can appreciate or with situations where his emotions may find an outlet. It is the old familiar method of teaching by illustration, but the illustration itself often carries with it more of the actual content than is the case in presenting other fields of knowledge. History is a revelation of human relationships. What means, then, could be more effective in the hands of the instructor than concrete evidence as to the existence of these relationships or actual specimens of human handiwork? So the picture, be it painting or cartoon, the map, the diagram, the poem, the song, the letter, the fragment of inscribed clay or stone, the model, the bit of dress, all lend themselves in a peculiar way to any effort to unfold the past so that children may realize its great lessons for mankind. These very things are often the fragments or broken bits out of which they construct their mental images, even though they may not be designed to be used as such, but rather to suggest something more remote from their experiences and so less familiar.

Such means as have been suggested for establishing contacts with the past have long been utilized, but their use has been more or less incidental. They have been used rather to create interest or merely as embellishments; they have seldom been regarded as the chief media for making the necessary contacts, or for impressing the desired information. The problem form of assignment hinges for its success upon

the more effective use of picture, map, time chart, and literary and source extract.

## THE TIME CHART

In problems designed to impress the time element, the time line or time chart offers a concrete method of securing an appreciation of such relationships. It is assumed that the child has already been introduced to the time line or chart in some one of its many forms before he reaches the junior high school. His time sense, however, is still rudimentary when he enters the junior high school, and much remains to be done before he realizes, even in a moderate degree, the significance of the passing years. The normal boy or girl is still blissfully unconscious of the time element; he will ignore it altogether unless his attention is constantly drawn to it. The learning of a series of dates does not of itself seem to convey any feeling for the passing of time. It is when he begins to objectify this element in some way by testing his own ability to recall those things out of the past which form a part of his own experiences that he begins to attach any significance to chronology. He is interested, however, in working out special and pictorial representations of the passing of the years or the centuries, as the case may be. The chart may take on a variety of forms. The pupil should be encouraged to devise his own peculiar scheme if that imparts added zest to the problem or makes it more real. Nations may be conceived as possessing "life" lines fixed in terms of birth, youth, old age and death, and the pupil's own life span may furnish a satisfactory unit of measurement. Problems designed to inculcate the time sense should be formulated so as to demand some such form of expression.

The following exercise combines the two elements of time and place and answers the question, "How and why did England extend her possessions between about 1660 and 1689?"

Construct a time line or chart for this interval, 1660-1689, representing on one side the happenings in Europe, on the other, the happenings in America. Cut out the portions of the map involved in the extension of the control of England and paste them along the line at appropriate places.

The time line or chart which calls for the assembling of a series of events in different quarters of the world on opposite sides of the same line impresses their proximity in time, besides conveying a picture of causal relations. The effort to arrange a series of events falling within a given period of time, say within a century or a half century, about a given country or a portion of it, representing events asso-



ciated with it, or explanatory of its development, especially if represented graphically, constitutes an effective time problem. An illustration of this kind would be to group in a circle about the Americas all the circumstances having to do with their exploration, representing the interest shown in them between 1500 and 1600. Different colors could be used to represent different quarter centuries or whatever time unit was most significant. A problem requiring the chronological arrangement of events having to do with colonization within successive intervals of time, for example, between 1600 and 1620, and between 1620 and 1640, noting the contrasts apparent in the colonizing activity, is still another illustration of the time problem. If the story be one of a series of conquests, the territorial idea can often be combined with the time element, e. g., by representing the successive waves of advance as they are fixed by the time intervals. Another concrete way of impressing the time element is suggested in problems of the following type:

As a merchant in England in one of the American colonies in 1700 write a letter to a friend in England giving your opinion on the Navigation Acts.<sup>1</sup>

Such a problem and the imaginary speech which was suggested in connection with the American Revolution, if carefully worked out, demand of the student a faithful adherence to the sequence of events. The arguments advanced gain or lose pertinence as they reflect the changes in the relations between the colonies and the mother country which accompany the passing of the years. Deviations from the actual order of events, or a failure to recognize the time element are quickly detected by the pupils themselves. It is thorough teaching of this sort—a form of approach of which the child himself grasps the significance,—that he begins to carry away an appreciation of dates. In the exercise describing the opening of the Liverpool Manchester railroad “as it might have appeared in a daily paper of the following day,” attention is directed in still another way to the part played by chronology in human affairs.

There are many things to discourage the instructor in this connection. If, for example, the exercise calls for a portrayal of life in the colonies, this is usually submitted in terms of the first few weeks or months at Plymouth or Jamestown. The dramatic aspects of these first experiences, their continued reiteration in textbook or in story form, make it very difficult for a child to recognize the changed conditions which time brings with it. So far as the child himself is concerned there are no time intervals separating some of the dramatic episodes which constitute the high spots in the history of these early days, no matter how much time may intervene.

The instruction of the first year of the junior high school as contrasted with that of later years will be more episodic in character; particular *intervals of time* will be emphasized rather than its great reaches or the fact of its continuity over the centuries. History at this stage cannot be that logical, continuous thread which the student discovers it to be later on.

If, then, the time setting of a people or an episode be emphasized; if the countries are conceived as the centuries have changed them, presenting as they do, striking contrasts with what they are today; if every opportunity be utilized to impress this in a concrete way; the time sense will be rapidly developed. If, for example, the class is dramatizing a scene from the Age of Pericles, or a series of such scenes, it is easy to impress the part played by time as this is understood to be a concomitant of successful play-writing. (See below under dramatization.)

#### THE USE OF THE MAP AND MAP PROBLEMS

In planning any map work, the instructor should keep clearly in mind the distinction between problems which are historical in character and those which are primarily geographical. In the one case the time element has been injected into the situation as an important factor, whereas it has been entirely disregarded in the other. An historical map or a problem in historical geography, therefore, offers still another means of developing the time sense. The distinction between the two types of exercise, the purely historical, and the geographical may be illustrated in the following problems involving the Louisiana Purchase:

##### I

#### WHAT WE GOT

On an outline map indicate the boundaries of the Purchase; represent the states now included within these, their principal resources and present population. (As a part of this exercise the Louisiana Purchase might be cut out and superimposed upon the territory included within the boundaries of the United States in 1800, after it too had been cut out. (See in this connection Johnson, *Teaching of History*, pp. 249-250.)

##### II

#### HOW OUR COUNTRY WAS GROWING

Cut out the states formed by 1803, forming them into two groups, the thirteen original states, those formed between 1789 and 1803. Now cut out the territory out of which new states could still be made before the Louisiana territory was secured. Now cut out the Louisiana territory. In each of the last two indicate the number of states actually made. Repaste on a single sheet of paper.

##### III

#### FINDING OUT ABOUT THE NEW TERRITORY (On the Trail of Lewis and Clarke Today)

Indicate their route and the resources of the country through which they traveled. Imagine yourself covering this route today by rail or automobile and indicate what you would see, including important cities, with their industries, and resources, noting the differences between sections.

##### IV

#### WHAT THE POSSESSION OF LOUISIANA MEANT IN 1803

On an outline map indicate by arrows the movement of peoples westward, with dates; the products raised at *that time*; the movement of goods down the Mississippi, with the source indicated, e. g., sugar, cotton, tobacco, flour, cordage, cider apples, bacon, pork. (Based on textual material in one of the grammar school textbooks.)

##### V

#### NAPOLEON STRETCHES OUT HIS HAND ACROSS THE SEA

On an outline map of the world represent Napoleon's Empire, including the territory controlled both in Europe and America. Indicate the boundaries of the United States at the time he took over Louisiana. The boundaries of our other European neighbors might also be shown. The idea of a hand reaching across the sea to grasp territory there might be used in representing the situation.

Problems II, IV and V emphasize the historical factors involved; I and III the geographical. In the last two attention is drawn to natural features which are unaffected by considerations of time.

The cut-out exercise (see II, above), the combination of the map with the time line or pictorial features, the combination of details from two or more different maps on the same map, the representation of events in their physical environment, and the relationship of geographical units to a given situation, are among the possibilities in actually depicting the "place element."

In securing that facility with the map which is desirable in work of this kind, the blackboard and outline map are indispensable. One of the great difficulties experienced in the first year of the junior high school is to individualize effort. This should be one of the principal aims of the instructor. The class are more inclined to trust each other than to rely upon their own individual, unaided efforts. Exercises are conceived too much as co-operative enterprises. If they continue to partake of this character they are not likely to spur the individual child to the point where he makes his own contact with the situation and "paints the thing as he sees it." Much of the effort of the first year will probably be spent in freeing him from the trammels of such dependence upon the efforts of others. Here is where the blackboard map and class exercises worked out upon it (or upon the outline map) should prove helpful. They should cultivate a freedom in the use of the map which may be altogether lacking at this stage. A free use should be made of circles, arrows, lines and colors, and the pupil should be encouraged to make his map "talk," even if he does not produce the conventional, well-ordered exercise to which he may have become accustomed. The drawing of lines to connect cities and countries serves to impress both geographical and causal relationships. The mere act of inclosing in the circle the scene of an event or a series of such happenings on an outline map directs attention to place relationships and cultivates the habit of fixing these. As these place relationships or changing scenes are worked out and developed upon a blackboard map with the aid of the class, the imagination is stimulated and encouragement found for depicting things for themselves when the opportunity is presented. They will often make excellent suggestions as to how geographical details may be represented, e. g., a series of hearts to indicate the colonies sent out by a mother city like Miletus, with lines drawn from each of these settlements back to their founder.

#### THE USE OF THE PICTURE, CARTOON AND GRAPH

The picture may be said to hold a preëminent place among all the means available for the successful presentation of history to junior high school pupils. This is as it should be where every exercise is directed toward the general objective of helping boys and girls to understand *wie es eigentlich gewesen (oder geworden) ist*. The outcome of their labors, the result sought, is itself in the nature of a picture,

or rather of a series of pictures. Perhaps it is a single great canvas; it is more likely to be a whole gallery of small canvases. Bit by bit, stroke by stroke, the picture evolves under the brush of the student. He is often careless in his use of materials and the result may prove to be only a great daub. There are times when he is satisfied to class himself with the impressionistic school; then again no detail is too insignificant to escape his attention and the result has all the charm of a beautiful miniature. But picture it always is, whatever may be the nature of the pupil's contact or whatever technique he may display. Other pictures, therefore,—any pictorial material, whatever may be its nature—not only provide powerful stimuli but supply working models and actual data for his own creations. They supply that visual imagery which he is constantly seeking as the vehicle for his own expression.

All this has been recognized by textbook makers, with the result that time and expense have not been spared to provide textbooks with a satisfactory equipment of this kind. Unfortunately, much of it is too often selected with little regard for its classroom utility and without furnishing the teachers who are to use it any clue as to its use. The pictorial portion of such a book is usually in the form of portraits, contemporary views (including cartoons), reproductions of paintings, imaginary scenes from the pen of the professional illustrator, views of historic sites and buildings, and a whole series of pictures which may be characterized as "culture pictures" (*Kulturbilder*) for want of a better designation. They comprise pictures of such things as household utensils, the original models of important inventions, articles of dress, in short, of that infinite range of things which reveal the life and activities of the race in its contact with the world in which it lives.

It is already apparent that not all these pictures possess equal value in problem-solving situations. There are certain elementary conditions which they must satisfy in order to make any considerable contribution to the work in hand. Among these are size, the presence of detail, or the lack of it, the use of color, or its absence, and the actual skill displayed in the drawing. Even these are subordinated to what may be called their pedagogical value, that is their possibilities of use in connection with the character of the work which is to be done. Two such uses deserve special consideration, the one more than the other, first that of motivating work, and secondly, that of supplying the pupil with actual material from which to draw some of the elements for his own creations.

First of all, there is the textbook material. This is the common possession of the class and should, therefore, be thoroughly exploited. As greater care is being exercised in its selection, its possibilities are constantly increasing. It is often not of a size or character to prove very useful, but this does not mean that it should be ignored. Fortunately the teacher does not have to depend upon it altogether. A few large pictures carefully selected because of

their inherent teaching value are almost indispensable in successful problem work and are easily procured. Illustrations of pictures of this type are some of the pictures in the Collection d'Albums Historiques, many of which are unfortunately now out of print, the Lehmann Historical Series, and some of the pictures in the McKinley Illustrated Topics. The size of these makes it possible for the pupil to catch the significance of detail. The use of color in those first mentioned (also characteristic of the Lehmann Series) brings back with great fidelity the actual scenes portrayed, thus enhancing their value and attractiveness. Stereographs and lantern slides are specially valuable because of this possibility of studying detail. Stereographs possess added value because they convey such a sense of reality.

There are at least four effective ways of handling picture material in the junior high school. The first partakes more of the nature of a class exercise, although it can readily be individualized. It consists of fitting a series of pictures into a story. Lantern slides may be used in this way to advantage. It often lends interest and gives added value to the problem if the pictures are without titles or are those from which the titles have been removed for the purpose. The converse of such a problem is that of supplying pictures to fit a situation or an episode, e. g., pictures culled from newspaper or magazine, or a series of thumb-nail sketches from the pen of the pupil. If the hand lacks the requisite skill to portray them, there is always the alternative of describing them. Pictures in textbooks which have been carefully illustrated may be used in this way. A somewhat similar use is to resolve a series of pictures into two or more groups illustrative of man's life or activities. Take, for example, a series of pictures illustrative of the developments within a presidential administration. Let the student arrange them in groups to satisfy his own idea or concept of the many-sided character of the epoch, supplying reasons for his grouping. A still more important use is to analyze pictures which possess real historical value for the pertinent details which they supply in order that the pupil may be able to construct a larger or a more comprehensive picture of the epoch or the episode. In exercises of this sort the same careful analysis must be made of the picture as is made of the text itself. No detail is too trivial; each must be carefully noted and appraised. This places a premium upon the formation of habits of careful observation, and of looking for the significant in everything which comes within the range of vision. The absence of data of this sort for many happenings out of the past only serves to impress the wisdom of utilizing to the full such data as we possess.

In an article written some time ago for this magazine, the writer made the following suggestions as to the technique to be employed in connection with this kind of picture study:

1. Set down all that you see in the picture. Do not depend altogether upon what you are TOLD to see in the caption.

2. Read the caption connected with the picture and note just how the picture illustrates it. Do you see in the picture what the writer of the caption points out?

3. What is there new or strange in the pictures?

4. What other pictures or scenes does it call to mind? Why and how?

5. Does it recall anything you have read? How?

6. Look up the city, country or person pictured and note exactly what the picture by itself tells you of these.

7. This picture has probably been selected from a large number. Why?

8. If you are dealing with a related group of pictures note just what added bit of information each contributes and how well the group, as a whole, illustrates the city, country event or whatever is featured by them.

9. Try to imagine yourself a part of the scene in every case. Would the experience be a strange one or one that was familiar? In what ways?

10. Remember, that studying a picture means more than merely looking at it.

An outcome of exercises of this sort is the type of problem which requires the student to draw or describe his own pictures, either to illustrate human relationships or to interpret them. Any boy or girl who possesses skill of this sort does not have to be encouraged to express himself in this fashion. On the other hand, the teacher should not despise any drawing, however crude in execution, which represents the author's honest attempt at this kind of portrayal. Contemporary cartoons not only furnish admirable bases for getting close to the events which they characterize, but often suggest ways and means by which the student may himself give expression to similar ideas. A pupil has only to introduce a rough sketch of Napoleon into an exercise to begin to see the conqueror as he rode rough-shod over eighteenth century Europe. An exercise begins to take on life and reality when there is injected into it the pictorial element.

Probably the most difficult type of picture to use successfully is the portrait. Perhaps if more attention were paid to the "outward" man, and to such details as physical characteristics,—if a more critical faculty for observation were cultivated,—such pictures might offer greater possibilities of use. They should not be neglected, but they will probably serve better in a supplementary or an incidental use. Reproductions of paintings and the work of the illustrator should be compared with the narrative itself or with contemporary views and critically appraised. While a critical attitude is being cultivated toward such pictorial material, the instructor should not overlook the possibility of such pictures affording bases for the building of the pupil's mental images. The work of the great artist should always be used with a due regard for the limitations which he himself has placed upon his work. He may or may not have attempted to picture the actual scene. It may furnish him rather with a convenient vehicle for some



great idea or emotion which he would convey to the observer. He may have subordinated some of the most significant details to exigencies of form, design and color. However pleasing or satisfying the result may be, the student of history must learn to apply in every case the rigid test of the fidelity of the work to the actual happenings. The value of a great work of art will often lie in the strong emotional appeal which it may make, thus preparing the way for an intimate or a more vital contact with the epoch to which it belongs.

The picture emphasizes particularly the idea or concept of change. On the other hand, as has already been noted, it may contribute much to the teaching of time and place. "Maps that talk" impress the importance of place relations, largely because of the unconventional picture elements which they embody. Even formal lines and squares and circles become significant because they convey to the imagination of the child certain elements of the pictorial. Very often they will effectively combine pictures and scenes cut out of newspapers and magazines with crude efforts of their own. If they have had any experience with the use of the graph, e. g., the bar graph in mathematics, they may be encouraged to use it in representing certain phases of history. A bar diagram comparing the influx of people during certain periods of colonizing activity, or comparisons of population statistics within a certain area *now* with conditions a century or more ago all bring into play this latent ability, capitalizing it to the point where the pupil himself is carried away by it.

Let the pupil but once acquire the habit of expressing himself in these more natural and unconventional ways and he will venture much farther along the path which it opens up before him. Unless children have been encouraged to give expression to their imagery and ideas in their own way in the lower grades, they will approach the work of "reconstruction" in the same spirit which has characterized their work in the past. They will be obsessed with the idea that it must be done in the most formal fashion or it will not serve its purpose. Hence the value of the picture.

There is still another purpose served by the picture which suggests a somewhat different use of the concrete. This is the "moving" or "motion" picture. It is really a case of combining the picture with another powerful visualization agency, dramatization. A great deal of the value of the motion picture, over and above that of any other pictorial representation, lies in its dramatic element. It may be regarded, therefore, as a form of the drama. As such its use will be considered in that connection in the next article.

Medievalists will read with interest Ralph Adams Cram's "What is Civilization?" in the *March Forum*, particularly his doctrine that "The Middle Ages were characterized by just balance and a sense of right values.... There was cruelty in the Middle Ages....there was selfishness, ignorance, immorality, pride, hypocrisy....On the other hand, there were some of the noblest manifestations of character ever recorded, and some of the greatest triumphs of intellect, creative emotion and constructive action."

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## Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROFESSOR J. MONTGOMERY GAMBRILL, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

### Large Views of American History.

*The United States.* By William H. Hudson and Irwin S. Guernsey. Frederick A. Stokes Co., New York, 1923. 632 pp. \$4.00.

*Our Republic.* By S. E. Forman. The Century Co., New York, 1923. xvi, 852 pp. \$3.50.

*The Story of American Democracy.* By Willis Mason West. Allyn and Bacon, Boston, 1923. xiii, 791 pp. \$3.20.

*History of the United States of America.* By Henry W. Elson. The Macmillan Co., 1923. \$2.50.

*Three Centuries of American Democracy.* By William MacDonald. Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1923. 346 pp. \$2.25.

*America: the Great Adventure.* By George Philip Krapp. Alfred A. Knopf Co., New York, 1924. x, 406 pp. \$4.00.

This group of books constitutes the most recent publications surveying American history as a whole in a single volume. The works of West and Forman are brief college texts, those of Elson and of Hudson and Guernsey are intended for the general reader but might serve as college textbooks, and those by MacDonald and Krapp are frankly attempts at a general picture of American development for the intelligent public.

The Hudson and Guernsey volume was largely written by the late William H. Hudson, at one time secretary to Herbert Spencer. It has the merits and defects which would be expected in the author. From the standpoint of style it is a superior work, but it is entirely conventional in scope and content. The only outstanding aspect of the book is the relatively large amount of space allotted to the colonial period, and the remarkably good special chapter on colonial culture. Not only is the subject-matter chiefly military and political history, but there is no indication anywhere of acquaintance with the results of the latest scholarship in the field of American history. The conventional errors comprise all the standard points from the Turks and the discovery of America, the Boston Tea Party, the nature of the Constitution, and the causes of the Spanish-American War, to the origins of the World War. There is none of the grasp shown by Beard, Schlesinger and others on the economic factors in our national development, nor any evidence of acquaintance with Turner's thesis as to the importance of the great westward movement. The best that can be said for the book is that it is well written and well printed. Nothing in its content justifies its production as a serious contribution to American history.

Forman's book is a work of quite a different character. The author has at least caught the phraseology of the "new history." He states in his preface that "in the making of our Republic the deeds of pioneers, farmers, inventors, teachers, captains of labor, captains of industry, have been quite as important as deeds of warriors and statesmen. This history, therefore, is not one of the drum and trumpet kind, nor is it one in which the politician always holds the center of the stage. A large share of attention is given to the every-day life of the people; to the movement which carried American civilization westward and built up a Union of States; to the growth of our industrial system; to the great inventions which have contributed so largely to our competency in material things." One could scarcely wish for a better envisagement of American history, but the execution of the author's ambition is scarcely up to the level which he set for himself. Unless one has taken an active part in the actual progress of the newer historical work it is difficult to get away from the rubrics and categories of the older historiography, and Mr. Forman lapses into a rather conventional method of

organization and arrangement of his work. The same old subjects and issues emerge from his pages as from those of the usual manual. There is, however, considerable improvement over the ordinary political textbook. The colonial era is treated very briefly, and nearly half of the book is devoted to the period since the Civil War. Much good material on economic, social and intellectual history is introduced. But the book is chiefly the old style history with cultural material sandwiched in between the sections devoted to constitutional, political and military events. It is not the synthesis of our national cultural and institutional evolution which we are awaiting. Yet it is probably the best advanced high school or elementary college text which has yet been produced. It is well written and the author gives plenty of evidence of capacity for original and independent thinking, as well as proof of no little courage in expression.

Professor West has to no little degree accomplished what Mr. Forman expressed a wish to do in his foreword. He has broken away from the ordinary captions and organized his work about the institutional political development of the colonial age, the broad social and international aspects of the Revolution, the contest of nationalism with democracy and slavery, and the rise of big business and its influence on politics since 1865. The author shows that he has wide knowledge of the social and economic basis of American development, and demonstrates real skill in clarifying the underlying causes of the great successive movements in our history. No other one volume textbook has so clearly and convincingly analyzed the economic basis of the leading trends in our national life since the Civil War, and the various futile efforts to break the power of the plutocracy. The sectional issues are treated with both competence and fairness. The only serious aberration is to be found in his treatment of the origins of the World War, which is rather terrible, but this can readily be improved in a revised edition. It probably does not represent Professor West's own judgment so much as the pressure of his publishers to meet the requirements of a "100%" book on a point which would be most impressive and convincing to school committees and unofficial guardians of public welfare. For those teachers who are not afraid to depart slightly from the well-worn rut and use a book which omits many respectable details of political history, though not one significant development, this textbook by Professor West may be heartily commended. The general reader may peruse it with profit, and he will learn many new and strange things about his country's history that were not imparted to him in his own college course in American history.

Elson's book is a revised edition of his well-known manual, suitable for high school reading but sufficiently voluminous and mature to serve adequately as an outline textbook for an introductory college course. It is unusually well, even entertainingly, written. It should readily hold the interest of students. It is also well adapted to the technical pedagogical needs of the teacher giving the conventional course in American history. The content is primarily political history, with some occasional infusion of cultural and social material. Its value lies in its convenient form for teaching and its interesting style rather than in the originality or distinction of its subject-matter.

William MacDonald is an excellent example of the broadening influence of extra-academic influences upon the college teacher. For years he was a most forceful teacher of highly conventional political history at Brown University, and seemed headed straight and inevitably for the presidency of the American Historical Association. Later he turned to journalism and travel, and a few years back produced a work on *A New Constitution for a New*

America which pointed out the defects and anachronisms in the instrument which was created as a compromise to govern an infinitesimal agrarian republic, but is today applied to the problems of a great industrial civilization occupying the whole heart of the American continent with a population of 120,000,000. Such a book would have shocked the Brown professor of 1910 beyond easy description. His present work is an effort to present in summary fashion the outstanding aspects of our national history and institutional development. While clearly written and a work of real intellectual distinction, the book does not, in the reviewer's opinion, successfully achieve its object. The author has been broadened intellectually since leaving the academic world, but he has not participated in the shaping of the "new history," and hence cannot serve as its expositor. As a survey and interpretation of political evolution the book is a masterly product, but as a sketch of the rise and growth of our national institutions and culture, it is no less of a failure than it is in its inability to grasp the underlying forces in our political and constitutional development. As an exposition of the leading trends and issues in the history of the United States the book is far inferior to Max Farrand's *Development of the United States*, and much less dynamic than such books as Becker's *United States: an Experiment in Democracy* and Schlesinger's *New Viewpoints in American History*.

Professor Krapp's book is roughly the attempt of a distinguished scholar in English to apply some of the freshness and vitality of a Wells or a Van Loon to the interpretation of American history, and evidently with some thought of the youthful reader. He conceives of it as a "great adventure," first in the way of exploration and colonization, and then in the conquest and exploitation of the natural resources of the country. Differing from the average "Hundred Percenter" he does not believe that we have yet reached perfection, or that the element of adventure has gone out of our history. The future is uncertain, and we have reason to expect that a century hence things may well be as different from what they are now, as our age is from that of Washington. The book is delightfully written, and while not an example of synthetic or dynamic American history, or competent in matters of technical historical import, it will charm and enlighten many readers who would be repelled by the ordinary manual. It is a beautiful piece of book-making, and illustrated in an original and illuminating fashion.

HARRY ELMER BARNES.

Smith College.

## The United States Since the Civil War.

*The United States of America, II. From the Civil War.* By David Saville Muzzey. Ginn and Company, Boston, 1924. vi, 847 pages. \$3.60.

*Recent American History.* By Lester Burrill Shippee. Macmillan Company, New York, 1924. 554 pages.

Both of these books are designed for college use. They belong to a type of textbook which came in a few years ago, of which Professor Beard's *Contemporary American History* and Professor Lingley's *Since the Civil War* are outstanding examples. The prevalence of this type of college text is one evidence that we are all busy trying to undo the over-attention to topicality which once hypnotized us. In a ruthlessly topical treatment of any historical epoch the unity of the presentation can scarcely be said to exist on paper. It focuses, if at all, in the mind of the writer before he chops his material into fragments, and is resurrected in the mind of the student after long agonies of reconstruction. An epidemic of topicality has reduced American history to something near the incoherent. And now the reaction has come. Give us a pattern, is the cry. After all, human life is a continuous web; nothing happens in isolation; its threads, like those fishes of brilliant color that turn gray the instant they are plucked out of their element, lose so often their significance the instant they are isolated from the delicate reflections which, in their true environment, determine their hue. Whether the first new crop

of historical patterns is going to achieve finality, the wise student does not as yet discuss.

Here are two books which illustrate the new craving for pattern in American history. Professor Muzzey has the sensitiveness to unity that is characteristic of the man of letters. Between his lines one can detect earnest communion with the problem of how to recompose the appalling quantity of historical data which is overwhelming the teacher of recent American history. He has concluded that the political thread is still his best chance. Frankly to accept this thread as the spine of his narrative, but to string upon it—or entwine about it, if you will—much more of other matter than used to be done, is the formula he has decided to build upon. He has carried out his plan skillfully in the charming narrative style we have learned to expect of him. One goes along with the political current, and at deliberate intervals pauses to survey the landscape through which the current carries us, and to examine critically the obstacles that determine its course. Broadly speaking, the census forms the basis of the successive surveys. The compact account of the country as revealed by the census of 1880 has cost the author, one may venture to say, infinite pains—so capable is the result.

In this method two questions dog the author: what proportion shall be allowed to non-political matter, and at what points shall the political and the non-political threads engage each other. Upon both questions there is room for great diversity of opinion. It is folly at present, when the old touchstones are out of favor and new ones have not been decided upon, to deny the right of private judgment. Nor have the opinions of the particular reviewer any right to set themselves up as standards—as so often happens. In the present instance, to be sure, the reviewer fails to see how, Professor Muzzey's objective having been assumed, his work could well be improved upon. The questions that force themselves upon us are questions of the method and point of view as a whole. For example, do we want in our general college course on recent American history to apportion interest between the McKinley Bill and the rise of the Standard Oil Company in the ratio of 8 to 1½? Do we want in such a course to give approximately 10 per cent. of the time to Roosevelt? As to the McKinley Bill, which may serve as a specimen of Professor Muzzey's method, his treatment is worthy of very high praise. It makes, by comparison, the narrative of Professor Shippee seem colorless, abstract, dead. To repeat, the question is not on the merit of the performance, but on whether the performance anticipates the new pattern we shall eventually accept in the teaching of college history. And all that is still on the knees of the gods! In determining the points at which the political and the non-political threads engage each other, Professor Muzzey's judgments have been entirely sound. Perhaps he might have made more obvious the importance which plainly, in his own mind, attaches to the crucial year 1890. He is both lucid and convincing in his handling of those important points of contact, the years 1877, 1887, 1896, 1905. Few books of the sort have been better equipped bibliographically. It is worth noticing also that in connection with each of his chapters Professor Muzzey indicates several radiating topics of especial importance, and under each assembles a carefully chosen special bibliography.

One phase of the book's technique again raises a question of pure opinion. Professor Muzzey has seen fit to make his book more of a commentary, less of mere chronicle, than is generally done in textbooks. But out of this grows a feature about which opinion has no right to differ. In humanizing his narrative by means of pen portraits, he shows a candor, a detachment, a readiness to be sympathetic with diverse points of view, that is most admirable. There are points, of course, where his sympathy ceases to be objective. Naturally. However, few writers can so transcend partisanship as to deal with Hayes, Cleveland, and Roosevelt as searchingly, and yet as sympathetically, as is here done. In a fourth portrait



the detached critic who possesses the gift of humor will be entertained, as well as filled with respect, by contemplating Professor Muzzey's heroic determination not to be unjust—though the heavens fall!—to Woodrow Wilson.

Professor Shippee's book illustrates the danger of breaking away from the old models without having fully digested the problem of forming a new one. In so many respects the textbook writer who has abandoned the political tradition appears to have been guided in his new arrangement pretty much by the accident of his own studies. In such cases, if the result achieves much more than a suggestion, it is rather by good luck than by design. To illustrate: Chapter I is political narrative to 1877, 33 pages; then come 27 pages of description of the country about 1877; next, 42 pages, political narrative to the establishment of Cleveland, as president, trying to put over Civil Service reform; following this, a brace of topical chapters, the first reviewing the rise of capital to 1890 and the second giving a rather general and indefinite view of labor activities to 1886 and Henry George; a chapter on Cleveland's first term, aiming, apparently, to knit the three preceding chapters and add whatever we need to know (by what criterion?) as late as 1888. To the present reviewer, the two trains of thought run parallel instead of combining into a unit. Politics and life, in these pages, do not cohere. Following this sort of treatment is like riding two horses, not at once but alternately, making brave leaps back and forth from one to the other.

Though Professor Shippee evidently has patience and carefulness as a scholar, and though he sees clearly enough the fundamental issues of our recent history, his power of presentation is slight. His narrative is colorless and his characterizations—such few as he indulges in—are not illuminating. The bibliographies are rather scant. Altogether his work illustrates the necessity in anyone who is breaking away from the old methods to establish sure criteria by which his choice of facts shall be illuminatingly tested. And whatever these criteria are, they must be rendered perfectly obvious to the reader, and their application must be constant.

N. W. STEPHENSON.

## Britain and the Empire.

*History of England and the British Commonwealth.*

By Laurence M. Larson. Henry Holt & Company, New York, 1924. 911 pp. (American Historical Series—Charles H. Haskins, General Editor.)

*A History of the British People.* By Edward Maslin Hulme. The Century Company, New York, 1924. 717 pp. \$4.00.

*An Introductory History of England. Vol. V. From Waterloo to 1880.* By C. R. L. Fletcher. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York, 1923. 496 pp. \$4.25.

The first two of these three books are frankly textbooks, designed presumably for a one-year course in English history. Both are adapted primarily to the uses of college students. They do not differ much in size. The first has more pages, but the second contains more words to the page. They differ somewhat more in their point of approach to the subject.

Professor Larson's main interest is in Constitutional history. He writes confessedly for American students and his disposition is to select for particular emphasis the evolution of those English legal and political institutions which lie at the foundations of American political and legal development. In his elaboration of these matters he has, perforce, had to slight others. He is distressingly brief in his discussion of such fundamentally important economic questions as the origin and development of medieval industry, the enclosure movement, the industrial revolution and the interaction of economics and politics in nineteenth century England. His attention to cultural history is generally restricted to a few brief and rather detached paragraphs. He allows, for example, a scant half page to Shakespeare and devotes six of the eight

sentences allotted to George Berkeley, the philosopher, to an explanation of his interest in America. With the exception of a disproportionately long chapter on the World War, he virtually ignores military history, and he has hardly paid enough attention to foreign policy, considering the fundamental importance to England of her foreign trade.

But it is no easy matter to crowd the history of England into 870 pages, and Professor Larson has perhaps produced a more satisfactory book for college students by concentrating his efforts upon certain selected lines of development than he would have done had he attempted to do equal justice to them all. It is perhaps to be regretted that his courage did not sustain him to the point of ignoring altogether those matters which he could not adequately discuss. No one is likely to be much the wiser after reading his dull little paragraphs on men of letters, nor for that matter his brief allusions to the development of the British Empire.

He hangs brief bibliographies to every chapter. They are on the whole well selected, and will be convenient to teachers. But these unattractive looking bundles of extra reading at chapter ends are very well calculated to depress the average undergraduate. More attention ought to be paid than Professor Larson, or textbook writers in general, do pay to the presentation of suggestions for further reading in a form likely to encourage it. A page or two of interesting matter about the material for a study of Elizabethan literature would be on the whole more valuable than a dull survey of it in double the amount of pages in the text.

All this should not be interpreted to mean that Professor Larson's book is not an excellent one in the main. Of those matters which he selects for treatment, his discussion is admirably lucid and his scholarship sound, without ever being oppressive. We should expect him to be at his best in the Middle Ages, and it would indeed be hard to find a more satisfactory summary of the subject than his exposition of English legal and constitutional development before the sixteenth century. He has not quite so sure a grasp upon the latter end of the story, which suffers somewhat from his failure to take adequately into account the increasing influence of economic forces on politics. His publishers are to be congratulated upon the inviting form of the book itself; the paper, print, and binding are all excellent.

Professor Hulme's book is written from a somewhat different point of view. His treatment is less orthodox than Professor Larson's and is rather more strongly stamped with the individuality of its author. He has

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pretty steadily subordinated political and constitutional questions to economic and cultural ones. Like Professor Larson, he ignores foreign policy, with probably less justification, since England's foreign relations exercised a much more potent influence upon her economic and social progress than upon the growth of her constitution or her common law. He waves aside military history also with an impatient gesture. The Peninsular campaign gets two sentences, Waterloo one. With rare courage, he disposes of the World War in thirteen pages. The evolution of the British Empire as distinct from that of the British Isles he relegates to one short chapter. Considering the magnitude of Professor Hulme's omissions it is questionable whether he is justified in using so much of the brief space at his command for his relatively lengthy estimates of men of letters, particularly since many of these are in the nature of personal reactions. Edmund Spenser gets as much space as the whole reign of Edward VI and Ben Jonson as the whole reign of Mary; while the last fifteen years of the reign of Queen Elizabeth, surely the most important of her reign from the point of view of its positive achievements, are allowed to pass without comment.

Professor Hulme's scholarship is not always flawless and his attitude towards controverted questions is often more dogmatic than the facts warrant. And sometimes, when he has his facts straight, he succeeds in producing a distorted effect by his choice and arrangement of them. This is notably true of his treatment of the English Reformation.

His bibliographical matter, though more attractively presented than that of Professor Larson, shows a regrettable indifference to the exact titles of the books he cites. Nevertheless, Professor Hulme has produced a remarkably interesting book. It is not likely to prove so serviceable as Professor Larson's volume in courses on English history designed with reference to the study of American constitutional history or of American law; on the other hand, it gives a much more comprehensive survey of the development of English civilization as a whole. Its easy, pleasant style ought to commend it heartily to the larger reading world outside the classroom.

Mr. Fletcher's book, the fifth volume in his so-called *Introductory History of England*, is certainly not a textbook, at least not for American institutions. The reasons which he gives for writing it are, first, that his Eton boys urged him to do so, and second, that he likes to scribble. If it can be taken to represent the kind of English history upon which Eton boys are nourished, we shall not be surprised to learn that very few of them ever reach the House of Commons. For the spirit which breathes in this book is not the spirit of modern England; it is the spirit of the eighteenth century Squirearchy. Its writer is a conservative and an imperialist in the sense in which the terms are used by the enemies of conservatism and imperialism; and he does not care who knows it. He justifies the maintenance of nomination boroughs, otherwise less favorably known as pocket boroughs, on precisely the same grounds on which they were justified in the fight against the Great Reform Bill of 1832. He condemns the Second Reform Bill because it "swamped the intelligence of the electorate." He disapproves of the secret ballot, universal franchise, and the payment of members of parliament. Denouncing both Place and Cobbett, and looking askance at Lord Grey, he sets up Castlereagh as the one really admirable figure in the politics of the decade following the Napoleonic wars. Anent trade unions he quotes with enthusiastic approval Saintsbury's comment "if England does not smash them, they will smash England." His attitude towards the Roman Catholic Church is redolent of the days of Queen Elizabeth. He regards Gladstone's fight for Irish Disestablishment in 1868 and his denunciation of the Bulgarian atrocities in 1876 as essentially hypocritical. He summarizes the attitude of America towards England during the century following the Revolution as "the insolence that a powerless unmoral State can show towards a powerful moral one."

It would be easy to multiply examples illustrative of Mr. Fletcher's point of view, but these will serve. He does not

explain why the book terminates at the year 1880, but we need not regret the fact. We shudder to think what he would have made of the Parliament Act, the Lloyd George budgets, or the Reform Bill of 1918, to say nothing of the ministry of Mr. Ramsay MacDonald. It is not likely that any one in America will regard this book as a serious contribution to objective history. Rightly taken, however, it has considerable value as a record of the mental attitude of the Tory Die Hard.

CONYERS READ.

*Western Australia: a History from its Discovery to the Inauguration of the Commonwealth.* By J. S. Battye. Oxford University Press, American Branch, New York, 1924. 480 pp. \$8.35.

A thorough study of Western Australia has been a desideratum. This colony developed quite apart from its eastern neighbors, owing to the broad desert wastes of the interior. It became a British colony as late as 1829, British annexation taking place for fear the French would take part of the continent. The colony began without convicts.

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Progress was slow—at the end of twenty years the population totalled five thousand—as a result of insufficient laborers and a poor land policy. In consequence, convicts were admitted. From 1850 to the end of the practice of transportation in 1868 advance was more rapid. It is the author's judgment, however, that the benefits were "dearly bought." Not until 1890 was responsible government obtained—forty years after its grant to the other Australian colonies. Much attention is given, also, to exploration and economic expansion. Wealth was garnered long by such varied products as sheep, pearls, sandalwood, and guano. By 1886 gold was found in paying quantities, but not until the mid-nineties were the amazing reefs of Coolgardie and Kalgoorlie discovered. Maturity came fast, for population quadrupled in ten years and the revenue increased sevenfold. By 1900 the colony was ready to take its place beside its neighbors, and joined, after some hesitation, in the federation of the continent.

The author is the Public Librarian of Western Australia; according to the Preface he has given "over twenty years' research" to the preparation of the volume. Dr. Battye is agreeably detached in recording the history of his state, and has made abundant and careful use of documents. The account of the political evolution is clear and full; the concluding chapter on the "Federation Movement" deserves especial commendation. As a whole, however, the treatment is rather too carefully chronological, and at times almost episodic. The problem of the aborigines seems unduly slighted. There is but one small sketch map; the outsider would have welcomed additional help in following the wanderings of land-hungry and gold-seeking venturers. There is no comprehensive bibliographical statement, and the index is quite inadequate. Such important names as Lord Glenelg, Earl Grey, S. H. Parker, Lee Steere, find no place. The unrelieved list of page-numbers under such headings as Explorations, Land Laws, and Early Difficulties (sic) is an irritation. In spite of these slight deficiencies this first detailed history of Western Australia will serve as a useful and authoritative addition to the growing body of material on British imperial life.

HOWARD ROBINSON.

Miami University.

*Tudor Economic Documents. Vol. I. Agriculture and Industry*, edited by R. H. Tawney and Eileen Power. Longmans, Green & Co., London and New York, 1924. 383 pp. \$5.00.

This volume is the first of a series of three, the second to be devoted to trade, finance and poor relief, the third to contain reprints of pamphlets, memoranda, and literary material. The present volume has seven sections devoted respectively to agriculture and rural society, towns and crafts, the corn trade and the food supply, textile industries, mining and metallurgy, alien immigrants, the statute of artificers. The documents represent a wide variety of material including some illustrations of the economic thought of the day and of governmental policy, and are drawn in part from unpublished manuscript. For the most part the conditions and developments are those falling between 1485 and 1603. Aside from the extension of abbreviations and the insertion of some marks of punctuation, the original documents are reprinted exactly, including the spelling. Several in Latin are not translated.

These volumes are prepared primarily for the use of undergraduates at the University of London who are taking economic history of the Tudor period as their chief subject, and they are doubtless admirably adapted to the purpose. The value of such a collection for American students is obvious, but much of the material would present difficulties for the American undergraduate who is not making a special study of the period.

*English Industries of the Middle Ages.* By L. F. Salzman. Oxford University Press, New York, 1923. 360 pp. \$3.50.

This work first appeared in 1913 and won recognition as a thorough and scholarly study of the limited number of

topics covered. The present edition is revised and enlarged, and enriched by scores of excellent illustrations, drawn almost entirely from contemporary pictures and themselves primary sources of information. The industries treated in a dozen chapters are the mining of coal, iron, lead, silver and tin; the quarrying of stone, marble, alabaster and chalk; building; metal working; pottery, tiles, brick and glass; cloth making; leather work; fishing; and the brewing of ale, beer and cider. Industry is used in the narrow sense, agriculture being omitted and also trade. Medieval industry was so intermixed with commerce that the omission of this aspect of the economic life of the time is unfortunate. Chapter XIII is devoted to a more general subject—control of industry. It deals with wages, prices, relations between employers and employed, standards of workmanship, relations with consumers, and the like. This chapter might well have been expanded. The book is a mine of specific information, bristling with figures and closely documented, much of the material being drawn from manuscript sources in the British Museum and the Record Office, and much from municipal records and the Victoria County Histories. A full index adds much to the value of the work for reference.

*Egypt and the Army.* By Lieut.-Col. P. G. Elgood. Oxford University Press, American Branch, New York, 1924. 369 pp., with two maps. \$5.35.

Many of the facts contained in this volume appear in histories of the war and in books like Meade's and in magazine articles. Yet the book is, indeed, what its preface claims it to be, an adequate successor to the works of Milner and Blunt. It is as personal, though far from being prejudiced, as they. It records the history of Egypt since 1914, with some introductory explanation as to the state of mind built up by that time.

Since it is such a personal record, giving the viewpoint of a constant observer, it is the more interesting reading; but also of course subject to constant checking to insure the validity of facts. Still, it is not the fact which one seeks or gains in a volume of this sort, so much as the interpretation by a man close to the fact. For example, it is a fact that the Egyptians made no effort to assist the Turkish attacks on Suez; and Colonel Elgood furnishes the understanding of Egyptian social and political thought which makes plain the apathy of the occupied people as to the nationality of its prospective occupiers. For example again, it is a fact that when 5,000 Armenian refugees were saved by a French fleet and brought to Port Said, nothing could stir them to activity for a long while until the gifted eloquence of a Parisian General formed them into the Armenian Legion; and Colonel Elgood's close observation of the traits of those people and their weak sense of nationality makes us understand their lackadaisical air. Finally, it is not possible to neglect mention of the keen insight and the honest appreciation displayed by the English colonel who writes this book of the strategical and tactical ability of the German officer, Kress von Kressenstein, who for two years battered away at the Canal Defence units, and with a bare three battalions held immobile and useless in Egypt three British Army Corps.

CAPTAIN ELBRIDGE COLBY, U. S. Infantry.

## Books for the Traveller.

*The Complete Pocket Guide to Europe.* Edited by Thomas L. and Nathan Stedman. Robert McBride and Company, New York, 1924. 592 pp. \$4.00.

*A Satchel Guide to Europe.* By W. J. Rolfe and W. D. Crockett. Houghton, Mifflin Company, Boston, 1924. 484 pp. \$4.00.

Both of these volumes in earlier editions have been on the market for more than half a century. Both are admirable and have served the needs of many thousands of travellers, experienced and unexperienced. They differ somewhat in size and scope, and one's choice must depend upon personal needs and preference. The Stedman Guide is small 16 mo., has less than half the weight of the Satchel



*Guide*, and is in truth a pocket volume. The *Satchel Guide* covers the most visited countries of Central and Western Europe. The *Pocket Guide*, in addition, covers Spain and Portugal, the Scandinavian countries, the Baltic States, Southeastern Europe, and Greece and Turkey. Necessarily the accounts of particular countries are much briefer in the *Pocket Guide*. New maps have been prepared for it, covering all the countries treated, but they are rather crude black and white outlines. The *Satchel Guide* gives excellent and finished maps of large size (with railways) of the British Isles and of the Central and Western portions of the Continent; a good map of Switzerland, and large plans of London, Edinburgh, Rome and Paris. Both volumes give general information for the traveller. Stedman includes a brief telegraphic code, a table of the American diplomatic service, a list of steamship lines, and a short vocabulary of words and phrases in English, German, French and Italian. Rolfe and Crockett give a calendar of festivals, fairs, and pilgrimages, a list of books for travellers, and a hotel directory by countries. The index of the *Satchel Guide* is much more extended than that of the *Pocket Guide* and includes analytic topics so that one can find at a glance a list of cathedrals, chateaux, famous rivers, forests, important mountains, falls, glaciers, lakes, passes, war zone sites of interest, and so on.

One of these volumes will prove invaluable in planning a European trip and as a general guide en route; such larger works as the Baedeker or Blue Guides will be needed for intensive study of particular cities and restricted regions.

"The Blue Guides," edited by Findlay Muirhead, closely following the Baedeker form, have now become well known to travellers, and owing to the fact that few of the famous older guides have been recently revised, the "Blue Guides" are enjoying an extensive popularity. A *Short Guide to London* has just been added to the series. It is based on the larger guide to *London and Its Environs* in the same series (1922), and includes most of its features. The environs are treated much more briefly. Three maps and 29 plans are provided. (Macmillan, London and New York, 1924. 292 pp. \$2.40). A volume on *Northern Italy* (485 pp. \$6.00) was also added in 1924.

*A Loiterer in London*. By Helen W. Henderson. George H. Doran Company, New York, 1924. 433 pp. \$5.00.

This volume is similar to the author's *A Loiterer in Paris* (1921), and others of the *Loiterer* series. Miss Henderson is full of enthusiasm, writes well and entertainingly, and provides a reliable account of all the ordinary subjects of tourist interest. The book is well printed and has numerous good half-tone illustrations. Unfortunately, it is too heavy to carry about with comfort, so its chief value is likely to be as a readable guide to inform the prospective traveller and stir up his enthusiasm before the start.

*A Wanderer Among Pictures*. By E. V. Lucas. Doran, New York, 1924. 289 pp. \$5.00.

Travellers and readers of books of travel are acquainted with Mr. Lucas's popular *Wanderer* series which began with *Holland* in 1905 and now includes *London* (2 volumes), *Paris*, *Florence*, *Venice*, and the present volume on pictures. The readers of these volumes know the author's special interest in art and literature, and his habit of featuring strongly the galleries and literary shrines in his books of travel. The volume on pictures is written with keen interest and appreciation, and is based upon thorough study and wide observation, although the author disavows any claims to being an expert. "The purpose of this book is rather to lay emphasis on the few pictures that ought not to be missed than on the many that must be seen." It is intended to be particularly helpful to "the traveller in haste." The plan is to give a brief, historical sketch of each collection, followed by a general account of their treasures by groups, comment on the pictures by rooms, usually very scanty, often obvious, but more personal than the ordinary guide book data. How much the "traveller in haste" actually gets of knowledge or appreciation is not discussed. The chief galleries of London, Paris, Madrid, Milan, Florence, Rome, Venice, Vienna, Munich, Dresden, Berlin, Amster-

dam, The Hague, Antwerp, and Brussels are covered. There are seventy full-page illustrations in halftone, well selected and finely reproduced.

*New Guides to Old Masters*. By John C. Van Dyke. Vol. IX, Venice and Milan (166 pp.); Vol. XI, Rome (144 pp.). Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1924. \$1.25 each.

The traveller with a serious and appreciative interest in art will welcome these small volumes, which provide the critical comment and appreciation of a first-rate scholarly critic and historian of art, in place of the usual guide book miscellany. The comments, written in the galleries before the pictures, are direct, concrete, vivid, personal and remarkably interesting. The author does not hesitate to oppose with the utmost vigor many conventionally accepted views. Volumes on Florence and Madrid are announced. The earlier series begun in 1914 includes the galleries of London, Paris, Brussels and other cities. All of these

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volumes are limited to the old masters, so that such galleries as the Tate Collection in London and the Luxembourg in Paris, are not included, but Professor Van Dyke hints that there may be a later volume on modern art.

*Trail Life in the Canadian Rockies.* By B. W. Mitchell. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1924. 269 pp. \$3.00.

This is a very entertaining book to those who know the wilds, and should at least arouse the curiosity and interest of those who do not. It describes the experiences of Mr. Mitchell and a few companions during nine seasons of climbing and exploring amid the magnificent ranges of the Canadian Rockies, including a circuit of the Yoho Valley, an expedition among the higher peaks of the Selkirk range, and another by pack train from Banff to Mt. Assiniboine. Besides descriptions of the splendid scenery there are chatty stories of happenings on the trail and much useful information for prospective campers and climbers, with a good deal that is interesting about the habits of the wild animals of the region. Although the author at times indulges in a bit of "fine writing" and occasionally allows his pleasantly colloquial and often humorous narrative to be marred by a touch of journalistic wit unworthy of the great dignity of his subject, the book is on the whole well written. It is very well illustrated from photographs taken by the author, some of them showing scenes never previously pictured.

GRACE CROSBY.

*Seeing Canada.* By John T. Faris. J. B. Lippincott & Company, Philadelphia, 1924. 264 pp. \$6.50.

Dr. Faris is the author of a long list of books on history, geography and travel. His American Travel Series has now been supplemented by the present volume, which is a work of solid merits, though not of brilliant style. We enter Canada by the "front door" at Cape Breton, and are personally conducted over this imperial domain to Vancouver Island and the Alaskan boundary. The work is enriched by 150 illustrations in doubletone and a frontispiece in color, while its very informative text is made readily accessible by a good index. The book is decidedly more than a conventional guide book, for it supplies much information about geography, natural resources, the people, and the prospects of Canada, as well as about points of historic and scenic interest. It is a valuable book to anyone who is interested in Canada and its future, as well as to prospective travellers, and would supply excellent reading for geography classes, for example.

*Elements of Rural Economics.* By Thomas Nixon Carver. Ginn and Co., Boston, 1924. 266 pp. \$1.48.

*Introduction to Agricultural Economics.* By Lewis Cecil Gray. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1924. xii, 556 pp.

Professor Carver's *Elements of Rural Economics* was written as a high school textbook. The author's point of view is revealed in the opening sentence in which it is declared that "Rural economics is that branch of the science of statesmanship which deals with agriculture and rural life as factors in nation-building." The book falls more or less naturally into three divisions. The first four chapters stress the statesman's viewpoint and such problems as agricultural development, conservation of resources, land ownership, nation-building, and the maintenance of a healthy agricultural industry and population are treated in an historical and comparative manner. The second division, five chapters, considers some of the most widely recognized economic problems of the individual farmer and, for the most part, succeeds in giving a clear description of the problems and sound advice for their solution. The third division, chapter eleven, is really an essay in rural sociology. "Very few rural communities have organizations enough to look after their most elementary needs," we are told, and, after pointing out the obstacles to rural organization, Professor Carver mentions a few of the farmer's

activities in which organization is especially needed. Prominent among these are the economic activities, for "all rural improvements must...begin on this foundation." But the author rightly sees that an increase in farm income is only one of a number of changes necessary for the improvement of country life. He therefore advocates better schools and churches, better sanitary conditions and more household conveniences; he would have more organized recreation and earnest attempts made to beautify the country-side and the farm home. Such changes, built upon the foundation of an adequate farm income, would transform our country life. The book's usefulness will be strictly limited to the field for which it was intended—high school and elementary extension work.

Dr. Gray's *Introduction to Agricultural Economics* emphasizes an entirely different set of problems. This author concerns himself but little with questions of public policy and does not attempt to treat the many rural problems that properly fall within the field of sociology. He defines rural economics "as the science in which the principles and methods of economics are applied to the special conditions of agricultural industry." In this restricted field of applied economics he has written a volume "in the hope of accomplishing two distinct but closely related aims—to provide a textbook in agricultural economics suitable for the use of beginning students and one also adapted to the needs of the large class of general readers whose interest in the economic problems of agriculture is being awakened." The result is a textbook of unusual merit and interest, and if by "general reader" the author refers to that large body of Americans directly or indirectly engaged in farming, he has splendidly succeeded in realizing his two-fold aim. Dr. Gray's position as economist in charge of land economics in United States Department of Agriculture has given him unusual opportunities to utilize the mass of statistical data gathered by the Federal government. His skillful use of this material both in the text and in the twenty-seven tables and eighty-one figures contained in the book has greatly enhanced its value as a textbook and renders the arguments more convincing to the general reader. A volume of this kind has been sorely needed and Dr. Gray has rendered the cause of agricultural economics a notable service.

ALVIN S. TOSTLEBE.

Columbia University.

*Life and Public Services of Justin S. Morrill.* By William Belmont Parker. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston and New York, 1924. 378 pp.

In the life story of Justin S. Morrill, forty-three years a Representative and Senator from Vermont, we have unfolded a typical American epic of a poor boy born and bred in the country who, without adequate schooling, mastered economic and political obstacles with marked success. At the age of 38 Morrill retired with a competence and after entering Congress seven years later remained there, first in the House and then in the Senate, until his death in 1898. He took his seat in the midst of the slavery controversy and worked in his quiet and conciliatory manner, so at variance with the stormy bluster of many of his colleagues, to prevent the spread of slavery and to preserve the Union. But this was merely an episode. During the same period his real interests came to the fore. He was a business man with the reverence characteristic of so many of the unschooled for education; in consequence, finance, the tariff, and educational aid were his interests, often colored by the border resident's dislike of England.

His biographer knows him and successfully pictures many of his activities. From scanty materials he reconstructs his early environment and shows its lasting influence. His part in the slavery drama is reenacted in such a fashion as to place the reader at his side in the struggle. His experience as a financial expert during the Civil War and as father of the Land-Grant College Act are very well presented. But when in 1867 he transferred his activities to the Senate the reader does not go with him. We learn that Morrill was an influential Senator, a hard-working Senator, a respected Senator, we read a catalogue of his

interests, various statements of his views, yet we are no longer living in his atmosphere. During most of his service in the Senate he was either a member of the Senate Finance Committee or its chairman yet we find little account of his activity in the routine of this important committee which must have taken up a large part of this period of his life. Taken as a whole, however, the book is an interesting unbiased biography and an important contribution to history. The reader becomes acquainted with this steady, hard-working, honest and tactful man who neither rose to great heights nor often saw beyond his party horizon and who flourished in the days when to be a Republican Senator was to hold the ultimate position of honor, power and respectability.

Columbia University.

ROY F. NICHOLS.

### Book Notes.

André Maurois's *Ariel*, an absorbingly interesting life of Percy Bysshe Shelley, translated from the French by Ella D'Arcy, may well engage the attention of the student of social history and the teacher of civics as well that of the student of literature. Shelley was not only a great poet but an uncompromising social and political radical who passionately spent himself in battle against institutions, moral codes, and public policies which he regarded as cruel, outworn and hypocritical. M. Maurois has written a delightful biography which is itself a work of literature, remarkable for its detachment without coldness, for ironical humor without unfriendliness, for sage comment on life without moralizing, for utter frankness that seeks neither to condemn nor to excuse. Brushing aside traditional and conventional views, the author has evidently mastered the original sources of information including some not hitherto exploited by Shelley's biographers (the new material being favorable to Shelley). The reader is left to form his own opinions, and literary criticism is entirely omitted. The result is an extraordinarily vivid portrait of a personality of rare fineness and quixotic devotion to ideals, intensely sensitive to beauty in nature and in art, advocating many reforms that in time were to be realized but in methods an impractical dreamer, recklessly violating the moral codes of his day and paying heavy penalties for his rebellion, abhorred by the "right-thinkers" and "hundred-per-centers" of his day—and by many since. There are vivid portraits, too, of many of Shelley's friends and associates—Byron, Trelawney, Hogg, Godwin, Harriet and Mary and Claire, and the many others. The book is marred at the very end by the unnecessary brutal realism with which the finding and disposal of Shelley's drowned body is described. M. Maurois's book is one of the finest examples of the new biography. (D. Appleton & Co., New York, 1924; 336 pp., \$2.50).—G.

In his *Economic Aspects of Southern Sectionalism, 1840-1861*, Robert Royal Russel has examined a wealth of material in an attempt to discover to what extent, divergent economic interests and conditions, other than slavery, were responsible for the growth of sectional rivalry during the decades just prior to the Civil War. His labors, which represent primarily a study of southern public opinion, throw a flood of light not on the extent of the economic disparity of the North and the South, but on what southern leaders thought to be the causes and the remedies for this disparity. He shows quite conclusively that while southern leaders generally agreed that the South was economically dependent on the North, they were by no means agreed as to the cause of this dependence nor the means that should be employed to render the South economically independent. Those who believe that slavery and the political doctrine of states rights were the only causes for southern secession will do well to read this monograph. (University of Illinois, Urbana, 1923; 2 vols., paper, 325 pp., \$2.00).—HARRY J. CARMAN.

The volume entitled *Readings in the Economic History of American Agriculture*, edited by Professors Louis Ber-

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*Topical Studies and References of the Economic History of American Agriculture*, by Louis Bernard Schmidt (McKinley Publishing Company, Philadelphia, 1923, 126 pp., \$1.50) is a revised edition of a valuable bibliography that first appeared in 1919. The present edition has new sections or devotes enlarged space to the Frontier and Westward Migration, population and agriculture, and various particular industries, such as grain, flour, cotton, live stock, etc. The later sections are not only extended but reorganized. Throughout the book new titles have been added. This little manual is indispensable to the student of American agricultural history.

Students and teachers of American government and of social and economic history will find Fred E. Haynes' *Social Politics in the United States* a suggestive compendium. Beginning with the significance of the frontier in American history, the author has sketched in broad outline the underlying social and economic factors which led to the making of the Federal Constitution, the origin of our major and minor political parties, the growth of Utopian and Marxian socialism, the labor movement, the I. W. W., the single tax, nationalism, the agrarian movement, and recent social legislation. The volume lacks careful organization and the treatment is by no means exhaustive. Its chief merit lies in the fact that it assembles hitherto somewhat scattered material. Chapter XV, entitled Recent Social Progress, might have been brought down nearer to the date the book was published. (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1924; 414 pp., \$3.50).—H. J. C.

In *Fiction Writers on Fiction Writing* Mr. Arthur S. Hoffman has collected the views of a 116 "successful writers" concerning a dozen questions regarding the genesis of stories, how the writing is planned and executed, the extent to which revision is usual, character and vividness of the writer's imagery, how the craft was learned and the relative value of different factors, what suggestions should be given to beginners, and so on. The writers quoted include Sinclair Lewis, Joseph Hergesheimer, Booth Tarkington, and a few others of considerable eminence, but the great majority represent work of a much less distinguished character. The editor of the book is a magazine editor, who after twenty years' experience revolts against "the curse of formula" and stories that are technically correct but machine-like in method. The result is a compilation of much interest and value to the inexperienced writer or to the student of fiction. The book could have been greatly improved by the addition of a good table of contents, running chapter titles and indexes. (The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis, 1923; 429 pp., \$2.50.)

*Junior High School Education*. Davis, Calvin O. World Book Co., Yonkers, New York, 1924; 451 pp., \$2.20.

The adoption of the junior high school form of organization, temporarily checked during the war, has gone forward during the past five years with rapid acceleration.

Its permanence now seems assured. Professor Davis's recent book differs from those that have preceded it chiefly in the fact that its author had at hand a larger body of material based on actual experience in the new form of organization. He has canvassed thoroughly the abundant literature of the journals and the printed reports of school officers, and in addition has acquainted himself with current practice by an extensive correspondence. The book is a survey of the junior high school as it exists at the present time. About half the book is given to the program of studies, with chapters on each of the subjects recognized as belonging to the junior high school curriculum. The author devotes sixteen pages to the social studies. He suggests, but does not urge, that the social studies be made the core of the junior and senior high school curricula. To this end he proposes a program including history and citizenship in each of the six grades from the seventh to the twelfth. More than half the chapter is given to a presentation of the indications of the demand for training in citizenship, as found in reports of various organizations and committees and in the reports of school authorities in typical cities.—FRANKLIN W. JOHNSON, Teachers College, Columbia University.

*The Lessons of History*. By C. S. Leavenworth, M. A. Formerly Professor of History in the Chinese Government Nanyang College, Shanghai, China, and formerly American Vice-Consul at Nagasaki, Japan. Printed under direction of Yale University Press, New Haven, 1924; 100 pp., \$1.50.

This is a serious book, even if a perusal of it at times induces mirth. "Imagine," remarks the author, "the amazing amount of information which a high school boy could give to Aristotle if he should return to the world to-day?" (p. 32). In that the information might be more amazing than the amount, it would resemble quite probably what is here supplied for the edification of any who seek the "lessons of history," or perhaps the "laws" thereof, or anon the "cratics"—"from the Greek word *krátos*, meaning sway, rule, sovereignty....seen in the latter part of such terms as aristocrat and democrat" (p. 15). This awesome thing "may be defined as the practical art which uses working rules, or laws, drawn from the repetitions of history to sway present civilization in the direction of progress" (pp. 15-16).

Provided that one learns these "laws" or "working rules" in "cratic" fashion—sixteen or more of them—which the author renders interchangeable with "lessons," he may observe the repetitions that also characterize the composition of the book itself. Among other verities, we are told, it is the "slow and faltering ascent of man from the animal to the angel" (p. 71). That is part, doubtless, of the "progress" toward "civilization"—two additional words likewise endowed with protean significance. Man, to be sure, "has already learned a very few rudimentary, angelic traits"—left undefined—"and hence the hope of history" (p. 72). So have some teachers and students of the subject. One of them is to beware of "cratics," even bearing "lessons." The book is well printed.—WILLIAM R. SHEPHERD, Columbia University.

Elbert Crandall Stevens says, in writing of "The Turkish Republic" (*March Current Opinion*) that "One of the most hopeful provisions of the Constitution is that the name Turk shall be understood to signify any citizen of the Republic of Turkey, without distinction of or reference to race or religion....Roughly the new borders of Turkey....mark a loss of more than half of the territory held before the World War....The dangers that beset her ways are many and formidable, ranging from the reactions of her aroused co-religionists to the cajoleries of European diplomats and the incitements of Bolshevik propaganda."

## Notes on Periodical Literature.

BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

In his second article on "Tragic Europe" ("Princes and Paupers in Germany," *March World's Work*), Sir Philip Gibbs says: "Now that the mark has been stabilized.... by an act of faith in German credit by German folk.... and then by international loans following the Dawes' Report, the social conditions in Germany have become settled.... The extreme Nationalists who shouted for resistance and revenge no longer get the same hearing. The communists who screamed for bloody revolution as the only means of liberating the German workers from an intolerable serfdom have been silenced for a time, because despair has lifted from the wage-earning world.... German public opinion.... is for moderate men and moderate measures."

"An American Spectator" contributes a most readable account of the civil war in China to the *March Atlantic* in the form of a diary covering the period from October 26, 1924, to December 2d.

John Langdon-Davies supports his statements that there is an abundance of political incompetence in Spain which is the background of her three most urgent problems by some concrete examples. "First, Spain is largely a nation of illiterates. Twenty-five per cent. of the population of Madrid can neither read nor write; in Seville, the proportion is 48.2; in Valencia, 52.4; in Murcia, 72.0; and in Lorca, 82.5. There are only 52,169 pupils in secondary schools in Spain—fewer than a third are in the national schools.... Justice has often been travestied.... Trial by jury.... tends to perpetuate injustice and medievalism.... the advocates of women's franchise are the clericals.... The lot of the Spanish prisoner has not changed in a thousand years.... The suburbs [of Madrid].... contain a population of 100,000.... Yet they have not a single yard of sewer.... There are over five hundred deaths from typhoid in one year in the capital," although "Madrid is a fundamentally healthy city. Every form of neglect, complete ignorance and an entire lack of morality on the part of the city councils.... turn it into the 'city of death'.... Such concrete examples.... point to a degeneracy of social conscience which is only aggravated by spiritual pride." (*March Century*.)

"The Geneva Protocol" is discussed in the January *Edinburgh Review* by W. Alison Phillips, who says: "The League of Nations.... has done some good work. So far as its main task is concerned, that of restoring and securing the peace of the world, its most ardent advocates do not claim for it any great success." The reason for this lies in "that terrible problem of blending the ideal with the real which presses upon all of us who want to change the mind and system of Europe."

R. P. Scott urges the recognition of "a real basis for co-operation between the English and Chinese existing in the possession of certain mental characteristics; of the fact that education.... is the best and only field for such co-operation.... England has at her disposal for educational or other purposes the sum of £400,000 a year for twenty-three years, the remainder of her quota of Indemnity imposed on China in 1901 to cover expenditure and losses incurred during the Boxer Rising.... It is on all sides agreed that the mutual benefit of both nations will best be served by devoting at least the bulk of the fund to education in China.... When, therefore, China comes to her own in this tough world, after securing in her higher schools and colleges for her youth a self-discipline of which the present generation does not obtain even the rudiments; when her inherited culture, her industry and her ability are not held back, as now by lack of initiation, when her public men acquire independence of mind, courage to dare, persistence to carry through—all of which can be taught and practiced in the school; then China, who loves peace, and England, who seeks peace, will join hands with America to ensue it for the world." ("England and School Ideals in China," *Contemporary Review* for February.)

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Binkley, William C. The expansionist movement in Texas, 1836-1850. Berkeley, Cal.: Univ. of Cal. Press. 263 pp. (10 pp. bibl.). \$3.50.  
Desmond, Humphrey J. Curious chapters in American history. St. Louis: B. Herder Co. 264 pp. \$1.50.  
Fox, C. E. The threshold of the Pacific. N. Y.: Knopf. 396 pp. \$6.00.  
McConnell, W. J., and Driggs, Howard R. Frontier law. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co. 245 pp. \$1.20.  
Myers, Gustavus. The history of American Idealism [a history of America]. N. Y.: Liveright. 349 pp. \$3.00.  
Tyler, Mary P. Grandmother Tyler's Book, 1775-1866. N. Y.: Putnam. 391 pp. \$3.50.  
Van Wyck, Frederick. Keskachauge; or the first white settlement on Long Island [relates to early history of what is now Brooklyn]. N. Y.: Putnam. 823 pp. \$25.00.

### ANCIENT HISTORY

- Bacon, Janet R. The voyage of the Argonauts. Boston: Small Maynard. 195 pp (7 p. bibl.). \$2.50.  
De Labriolle, P. The history and literature of Latin Christianity, from Tertullian to Boethius. N. Y.: Knopf. 582 pp. \$7.50.  
De Morgan, J. Prehistoric man. N. Y.: Knopf. 330 pp. \$5.00.  
Geography of Strabo, Vol. 3 [Loeb Classical Library]. N. Y.: Putnam. 397 pp. \$2.50.  
Vaughan, D. M. Great peoples of the ancient world. N. Y.: Longmans, Green & Co. 188 pp. \$1.20.

### ENGLISH HISTORY

- Callender, Geoffrey A. R. The naval side of British history. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 305 pp. \$3.50.  
Carthill, Al. The lost dominion; the story of England's abdication in India. N. Y.: Putnam. 357 pp. \$3.50.  
Forbes, F. A. The grip fast history book, book I. The beginnings of Christian Britain [a history for children]. N. Y.: Longmans, Green & Co. 112 pp. 60c.  
Harcourt, H. Sidelights on the crisis in India. N. Y.: Longmans, Green & Co. 128 pp. \$1.25.  
Kerr, Cecil. The grip fast history books, book II. Medieval Britain, 900-1535. 159 pp. 75c.  
The grip fast history books, book II. Teacher's book. N. Y.: Longmans, Green & Co. \$1.10.  
Kerr, Cecil. The grip fast history books, book III. The building of the British Empire. 151 pp. 75c.  
The grip fast history books, book III. Teacher's book. N. Y.: Longmans, Green & Co. \$1.10.  
Macnicol, Nicol. The making of modern India. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 244 pp. \$2.50.

### THE WORLD WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION

- Carnegie, David. The history of munitions supply in Canada, 1914-1918. N. Y.: Longmans, Green & Co. 363 pp. \$6.00.  
Virginia, War History Commission. Virginia War History in newspaper clippings [a calendar of 40 vols. of newspaper clippings filed in the rooms of the Commission in Richmond]. Richmond, Va.: War Hist. Com., Room 1, State Capitol. 500 pp. \$1.50.

### MISCELLANEOUS

- Bell, Sir Charles. Tibet; past and present. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 340 pp. \$8.00.  
Journal of the American Irish Historical Society for 1924. N. Y.: Amer. Irish Hist. Society, 132 E. 16th St. 325 pp. \$2.00.  
Larner, John B., editor. Records of the Columbia Historical Society, Wash., D. C., Vol. 26. Wash., D. C.: Columbia Hist. Soc., 1413 I St., N. W. 242 pp. \$3.50.

- Linebarger, Paul M. W. Sun Yat Sen and the Chinese Republic. N. Y.: Century. 389 pp. \$4.00.  
Webster, Nesta H. Secret societies and subversive movements. N. Y.: Dutton. 432 pp. \$7.00.

### BIOGRAPHY

- Bertie, Lord. The diary of Lord Bertie of Thame, 1914-1918. 2 vols. N. Y.: Doran. 382, 352 pp. \$10.00.  
Cole, George D. H. The life of William Cobbett. N. Y.: Harcourt. 468 pp. (8 p. bibl.). \$4.50.  
Lee, Sir Sidney. King Edward VII. In 2 vols. Vol. 1. N. Y.: Macmillan. \$8.00.  
Trotsky, Leon. Lenin. N. Y.: Minton, Balch. 236 pp. \$2.50.  
Lincoln, Abraham. Lincoln's last speech in Springfield in the campaign of 1858. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press. 22 pp. \$1.50.  
Wilson, Woodrow. College and state; educational, literary and political papers, 1875-1913. 2 vols. N. Y.: Harper. 541, 532 pp. (31 p. bibl.). \$7.00.

### GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS

- Hadley, Arthur T. The conflict between liberty and equality. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. 140 pp. \$1.50.  
Hudson, Manley O. The permanent court of international justice and the question of American participation. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard Univ. Press. 388 pp. \$4.00.  
Moon, Parker T. Syllabus on international relations. N. Y.: Macmillan. 299 pp. (37 p. bibl.). \$2.00.  
Turkington, Grace A. Helps for the study of our Constitution. Boston: Ginn & Co. 158 pp. 40c.  
Turlington, Edgar W. The American treaty of Lausanne. Boston: World Peace Foundation, 40 Mt. Vernon St. 5c.  
Wallace, David D. The government of England; national local and imperial [revised edition]. N. Y.: Putnam. 400 pp. \$2.50.

## Historical Articles in Current Periodicals.

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- Dynamic Politics and the New History. Harry E. Barnes (*Monist*, January).  
History as a Factor in Moral Education. G. L. Heawood (*Church Quarterly Review*, January).  
Limitations on National Sovereignty in International Relations. James W. Garner (*American Political Science Review*, February).  
Law and Economics. John R. Commons (*Yale Law Review*, February).  
Legislation and Judicial Decision. Rudolf Stammier (*Michigan Law Review*, February).  
The Problem of Historical Interpretation. B. B. Kendrick (*North Carolina Historical Review*, January).  
The Importance of Historical Societies. James O. Knauss (*Florida Historical Society Quarterly*, January).  
The Trend of Economics, as Seen by Some American Economists. Allyn A. Young (*Quarterly Journal of Economics*, February).  
Ibsen's Political and Social Ideas. Philip G. Nesslerius (*American Political Science Review*, February).  
The Historical Development of Surgical Anesthesia. Chauncey D. Leake (*Scientific Monthly*, March).  
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The Belief in the Continuity of the Roman Empire among the Franks of the Fifth and Six Centuries. Herman Fischer (*Catholic Historical Review*, January).



Religious Tolerance during the Early Part of the Reign of Constantine the Great. John R. Knipfing (*Catholic Historical Review*, January).  
 Mohamed. S. Khuda Bukhsh (*Calcutta Review*, January).  
 The Administration of Criminal Law in Flanders, chiefly in the Fifteenth Century. Malcolm Letts (*Law Quarterly Review*, January).  
 The Blessed Cardinal Bellarmine's Defense of Popular Government in the Sixteenth Century. John C. Roger (*Catholic Historical Review*, January).  
 The Industrial Position of Woman in the Middle Ages. Sister M. Pia (*Catholic Historical Review*, January).  
 The Overland Route to India in the Eighteenth Century. H. L. Hoskins (*History*, January).  
 Nine Months of Greek Republicanism. William Miller (*Contemporary Review*, February).  
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## GREAT WAR AND ITS PROBLEMS

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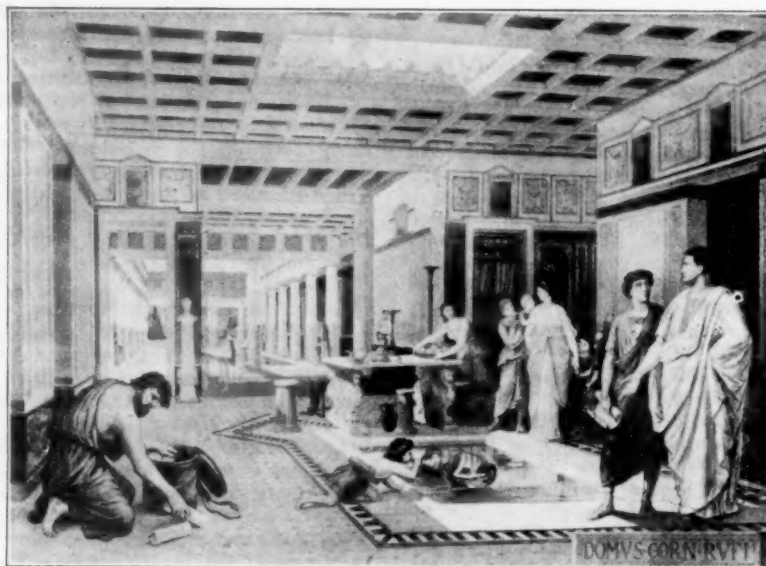
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